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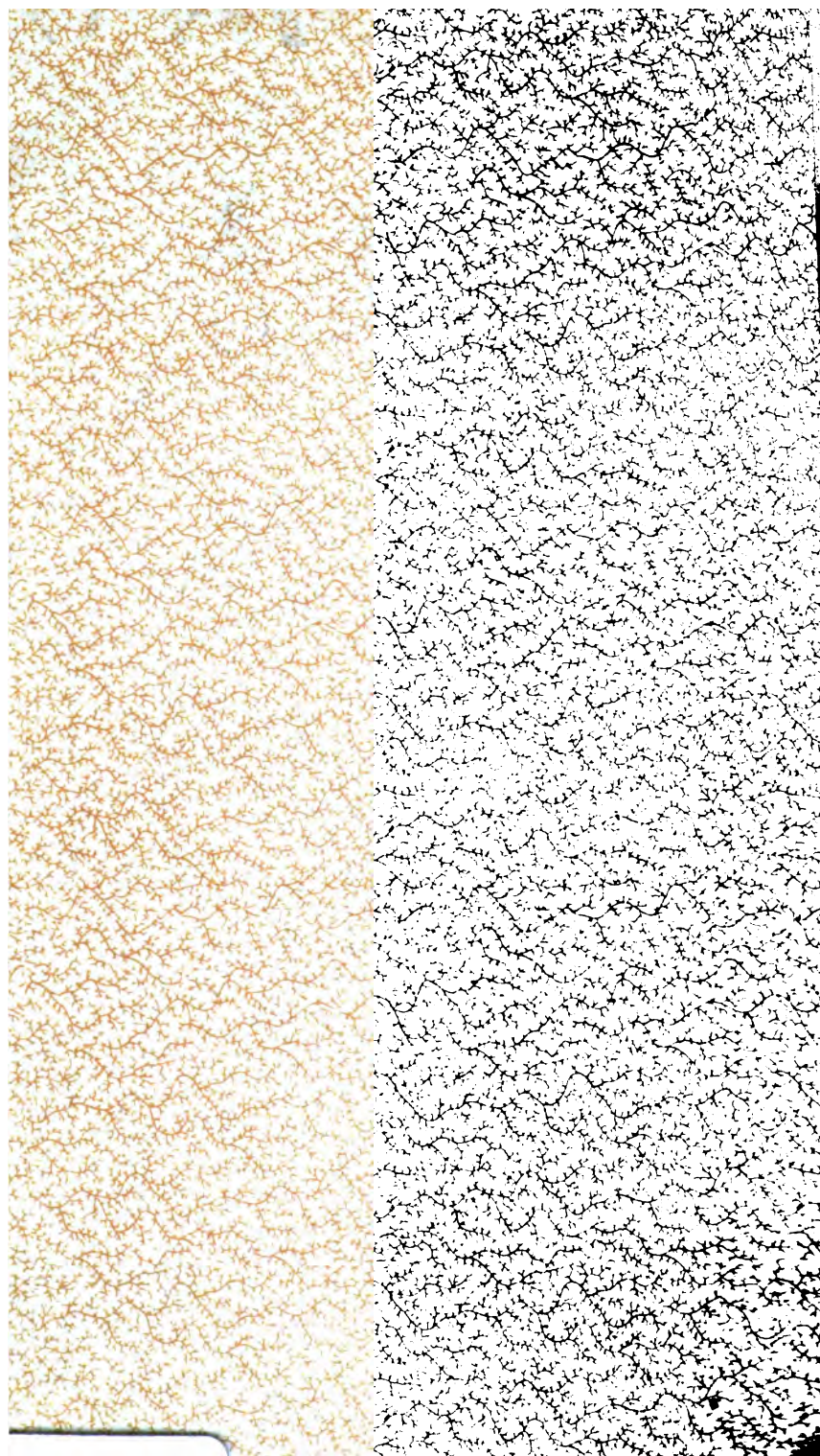
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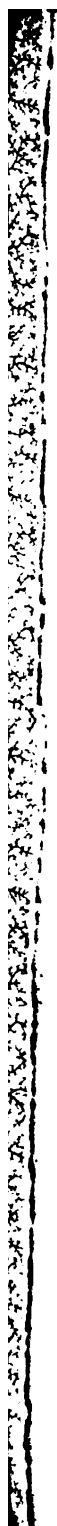
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From JANUARY to APRIL, *inclusive.*

M, DCCC, VI.

With an APPENDIX.

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Φιλοσοφία ἐστὶ ζωῆς ἀνθρώπου καθαροῦ καὶ τελειότητος

HIEROCLES.

*Philosophy is the purification and perfection of the life of Man.*

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VOLUME XLIX.

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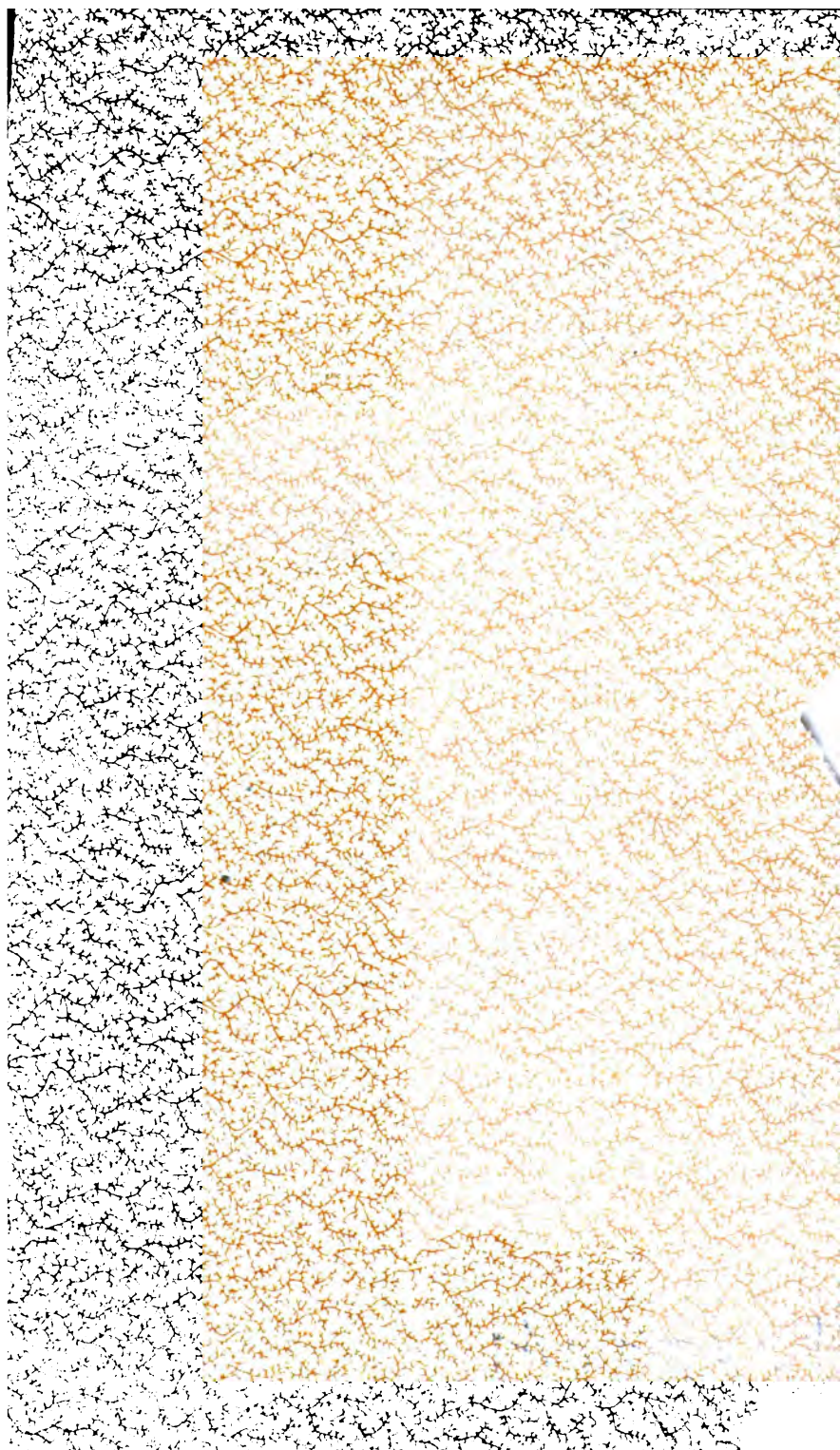
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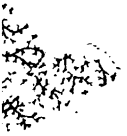
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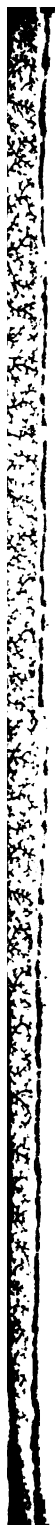
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- Page 78. l. 7. from bott. insert a comm: after '*peribet*.'  
 101. l. 7. for '*perplexity*,' r. *proximity*.  
 218. l. 3. from bott. for '*that*,' r. *than*.  
 260. l. 22. for '*Calasio*,' r. *Calasio*.  
 267. l. 2. from bott. for '*שש*' r. '*שש*'  
 269. l. 27. after '*age*' insert *of*.  
 — l. 34. dele the comma after '*though*.'  
 370. l. 11. from bott. for '*conciencious*,' r. *conscientious*.  
 371. l. 7. for '*dialecition*,' r. *dialectician*.  
 335. l. 27. for '*apprehended*,' r. *apprehend*.  
 417. l. 28. for '*He*,' r. *It*.

# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JANUARY, 1806.

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**ART. I.** *Ancient and Modern Malta*: containing a full and accurate Account of the present State of the Islands of Malta and Goza, the History of the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem, also a Narrative of the Events which attended the Capture of these Islands by the French, and their Conquest by the English; and an Appendix containing authentic State-Papers and other Documents. By Louis de Boisgelin, Knight of Malta. Illustrated with a large Chart of the Islands, Views, Portraits, Antiquities, &c. 4to. 2 Vols. 4l. 4s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1805.

**A**T any other period than the present, it might have been a hazardous speculation to have published two superb quarto volumes relative to the little island of Malta: but, considering the importance which that rock now possesses in the contemplation of the politician, and that it makes a prominent figure among the objects of the bloody contest now existing, it cannot fail to excite a peculiar degree of interest; and the inquisitive reader will be desirous of more minute information respecting it, than he would require under ordinary circumstances. It is easy to appreciate the value of Malta on the ground of its locality; as the key of the Levant, and as a kind of out-post to our Eastern dominions, it is devoutly to be wished that it may remain a permanent part of the British empire: but, if such an arrangement cannot finally be adopted, perhaps the next desirable measure for us and for the European states in general, would be to cause its reversion in full sovereignty to its original proprietors; the most potent monarchs agreeing to guarantee to them this petty empire, and to assist them in carrying into effect their benevolent purposes. In the hands of the knights, Malta would become, what in strict justice it ought to be, a free port to all ships navigating the Mediterranean: but, in the possession of France, it would probably be converted into an object of annoyance and aggrandizement.

It is the design of the present historian to plead the cause neither of Great Britain nor of France, but to shew how much

his fraternity, from the very first institution of the order, have been intitled to universal admiration; what humanity, gallantry, the self-devotion they have displayed ever since the island of Malta was generously granted to them by the Emperor Charles V.; how much it prospered under their administration; the baseness and cruelty of the French in depriving them of it; and what benefits would accrue to Europe from its re-occupation by its former masters. We applaud the manly feeling which pervades M. Boisgelin's narrative; and though the darling object of his wishes is too much enveloped in clouds to allow us to cheer him with the hope of success, we may safely venture to assure him that few will read his pages without respecting the body to which he belongs, and lamenting that its possessions should have been engulfed in the dreadful vortex of the French Revolution.

If M. de Boisgelin displays the zeal and enthusiasm of a Knight of Malta, he writes also with ample knowledge of the subject which he discusses, and has inserted in his work every interesting particular respecting it. The picture includes a view of the situation, climate, population, and fertility of Malta and Goza; with accounts of the Maltese, and of the towns, ports, edifices, monuments, villages, curiosities, natural productions, &c. which are to be found in these islands. We are also presented with long details explanatory of the constitution and finances of the Order of Malta; and in the last place their interesting history is related from the time of their quitting Rhodes under the Grand Master L'Isle Adam, and their subsequent occupation of Malta by virtue of the grant made to them by the Emperor Charles V., to the period of their being invaded, plundered, and driven by the French from a spot which they had so long and so honourably occupied. In conclusion, he notices the exertions of Britain to expel her enemies from a position which it would not have been safe to have permitted them to retain.—To assist the understanding of the reader, we find an explanation of some terms peculiar to the order of Malta; and of the value of the money, weights, and measures used in this island, compared with those of England.

Of the ancient history of Malta, scarcely any traces remain; and it is of little moment to inquire whether it was the Ogygia of Homer, (he does not call it Hyperia,) whether it was once inhabited by giants, and whether its present name was given to it by the Greeks in reference to its excellent honey, or by the Phœnicians, on account of its being a place of refuge. The importance of its situation, however, was known to the ancient states bordering on the Mediterranean; the Carthaginians  
disputing

disputing the possession of it with the Greeks, and the Romans with the Carthaginians. In after times, it became the property of the Goths, and of the Arabs; in 1090 it was taken by the Normans, who gave it up to the Germans, when it was erected into a county and marquisate; from the Germans, it passed to the French; from whom it was wrested by the Aragonians, and with Goza was finally added to the vast dominions of the Emperor Charles V. This monarch, as M. Boisgelin observes, being a 'politic prince whose prudence equalled his activity, considered these possessions in a very different light from his predecessors:

'To command the Mediterranean, to secure the coast of Sicily, to threaten that of Africa, and to interrupt at pleasure all commercial intercourse between the two seas in the centre of which they were placed, were objects of sufficient importance for Charles to be well aware of the great advantage of possessing these two islands. His policy alone would have induced him to profit by such a circumstance: but his foresight extended still farther; for fearing these important places might in future be taken from his successors, who, being obliged to attend to the centre of their dominions, or to the opposite confines, might not be able to keep a force sufficient for the defence of Malta and Goza—and at the same time reflecting of what importance such a conquest would be to his enemies in the political balance of Europe—he determined to place them in the hands of some power which would be particularly interested in preserving them; and which, without being able to annoy any other state, would be respected by all. Added to these considerations, he found it very advantageous to save the expence of 340,000 French livres, which his treasury was obliged to furnish for the maintenance of the different garrisons it was necessary to keep in the forts and castles of Malta, Goza, and Tripoly. He, in consequence, made choice of the order of St. John of Jerusalem: which, having been driven from its principal place of residence, had been wandering on the coast of Italy: and in 1530 he established the knights as perpetual sovereigns of the islands of Malta and Goza, together with the city of Tripoly.'

The object of the Emperor was completely answered in establishing the Knights of St. John of Jerusalem as the perpetual sovereigns of Malta and Goza; and from the period of their occupation, the strength and value of those islands have increased. It is gratifying to observe the exertions which were made by the members of this order on taking possession of their newly acquired territory; and the magnificent towns and fortifications, which soon sprang up, proved how much even small states might accomplish by economy, talents, and persevering industry. As warriors in defence of their only city, the Knights of St. John often rivalled the heroes of the Iliad in courage; and as a maritime state, their victories were at times as



brilliant, though not on so grand a scale, as those of Great Britain. La Valette's gallant defence of Malta, when it was besieged by a vast army of the Turks, has been repeatedly celebrated in history; and the knights on board their galleys and ships of war have, in their contests with the vessels of the Infidels, performed prodigies of valour.

We cannot coincide with this historian by subscribing to the necessity of all the rules and regulations of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, for carrying into effect the avowed object of its institution. It might be modelled on more liberal and general principles of Christianity, and be made more independent than it was in its former state, by better secured revenues: but, till the Knights have a nearer prospect of resuming its sovereignty than they appear to enjoy at present, we may save ourselves the trouble of farther discussing this subject.

Setting out of the question M. Boisgelin's motives for commencing author, we shall now advert to the facts and observations which are contained in his pages.

The situation of Malta is in North Lat.  $35^{\circ}$ ,  $44'$ ,  $26''$ , and Long.  $15^{\circ}$ ,  $54'$  East of London; it is in length 20 miles, and 12 broad; and it contains, besides the city of Valetta and its dependencies, 22 villages or *casals*, a name derived from the Arabian word *rahah*, signifying a station. In describing the fertility of the island, the Chevalier says that

'The ground in Malta is never suffered to remain uncultivated, but constantly sown every year. Each season yields its peculiar crop, and the produce is very abundant. The corn, in land of a middling quality, yields from sixteen to twenty for one; whilst that on good land affords thirty-eight, and on rich spots sixty-four. The island of Sicily is by no means equally fertile.

'The colour of the soil varies in the different districts of Malta, and it is seldom more than one foot deep above the surface of the rock: it is irrigated chiefly by the night dew; but the rock, being porous, retains the damp, and keeps the ground constantly fresh. The earth is always removed once in ten years, in order to clear the rock of a thick crust, which forms, and prevents the moisture from sufficiently penetrating.

'When the ground is properly prepared, it produces, the first year, water-melons and garden plants; the next, an excellent fruit, which is preserved during the winter, and distinguished by the name of Maltese melons; and afterwards barley, the straw of which furnishes fodder for the cattle. The ground is ploughed the third year, and planted with cotton; and the fourth sown with corn. The land afterwards yields these different crops alternately; but care is always taken to prepare the ground, particularly the year the cotton-tree is to come into bearing, when it is necessary to reduce the earth into a kind of powder.

• Three

Three species of cotton are cultivated in Malta; one natural to the country, another from Siam, and the third of a cinnamon colour, called Antilles cotton\*. These are all sown in the month of April, and the top of the plant is cut in the beginning of September, that the fruit may grow larger. It is gathered in October, when it begins to open, which is a sign that it is then sufficiently ripe. It is sown in the following manner: A hole some inches deep is made in the ground, which is afterwards filled with water, and when it is sufficiently soaked, the seed is put into it and covered over, without being watered again till it begins to shoot out of the ground. The plant presently grows to the height of ten to fifteen inches, and blooms in the month of August.

Wheat is sown in November, after the ground has been ploughed three times, and cut in the beginning of June: barley likewise is sown in the former month, and reaped in May. There is a kind of corn in Malta called *tommon*, which grows in poor land, and the bread made of the flour is particularly white. This grain is sown in February.

Each field is enclosed with walls to shelter the different plants from the effects of the wind, rain, and storms, during the spring and autumn.

Necessity, the parent of industry, has taught the Maltese to make a sort of artificial land in the barren parts of the island. They begin by levelling the rock, which, however, they allow to incline a little; that all superabundant water may run off. They then heap together some stones broken into small pieces of an irregular form, which they place about a foot high, and cover with a bed of the same stones nearly reduced to powder. On this, they first place a bed of earth, brought either from other parts of the island, or taken out of the cliffs of the rocks; then a bed of dung; and afterwards a second bed of earth: such, indeed, is the perseverance of the proprietors of this ground, that it becomes in time equally fertile with natural land.

Malta and Goza produce fruits of exquisite flavour, excellent roots, and very fine flowers; the roses in particular are much sweeter scented than in any other country. These islands likewise yield great quantities of *comino*, *anised*, *kalimagnum*, *loricella*, *silla*, and *lichen*; this last plant grows on the rocks exposed to the north, and is used for dyeing the amaranthus colour. *Silla* is peculiar to Malta and Goza, and is of a better quality in the last-mentioned island. This plant grows to the height of five feet, and bears a red flower. Tournefort calls it *hedysarum clypeatum flore suaviter rubente*. It serves for fodder, is sown in June, and mowed in May. The same ground is

There are two other sorts of cotton cultivated in America, the one growing upon a kind of shrub, and the other on a large tree full of thorns. These species are mentioned by Bernardin de St. Pierre, but are not known in Malta. The cotton-tree in India is handsome, and grows to a great height: it shoots afresh during five years before there is a necessity of replanting it. That which grows in the Antilles must be planted every two years, and is not so tall as the former, but it produces very fine cotton of a beautiful yellow.\*

afterwards sown with corn, and the following year the silla comes up again of itself: it likewise shoots out the third year, but has then lost all strength and quality.

'The gardens in Malta are generally ornamented with groves of orange and lemon trees; but these are not permitted to grow to any great height on account of the wind, which would blow off the fruit, and break the branches. The greatest attention is paid to the orange-trees, which are commonly watered twice a-day. Their tops are trimmed into a round form resembling an umbrella; and they grow on one single straight stem, as do likewise the lemon-trees, the branches of which are sometimes suffered to extend till they form a kind of bower. These trees are almost all raised in tubs, and placed in the most sheltered spots. Kitchen gardens are greatly increased in Malta, and employ numbers of people: they produce vegetables of the finest quality. Water is constantly kept for their use in cisterns hewn out of the rock, and trenches are dug round them to collect the rain.

'A great many bees are kept in some parts of the island; the hives are horizontal, in the eastern style, and are much more easy of access than those of another form. The Maltese honey is very sweet, and has a most delicious flavour; it is reckoned an excellent digestive, and the ancients compared it to the honey of Hybla. Cicero likewise mentions it as being superior to that of any other country.'

Promising as is this account of its fertility, we are informed that Malta cannot furnish provision for the inhabitants; though, in addition to its vegetable produce, fish is very abundant on the coast. Its population is represented to have experienced a most rapid increase; and, in proportion to its extent, it is represented as having been, at the period of the French Invasion of it, the most populous spot in Europe. We shall transcribe the account, with the curious note annexed:

'Malta in 1530 did not contain quite fifteen thousand inhabitants, and these were reduced to ten thousand at the raising of the siege in the grand mastership of La Valette; during that of Omedes, Goza was entirely depopulated; and the plague in 1592 made terrible ravages on the island; notwithstanding which, by the census taken in 1632 the population of the two islands amounted to fifty-one thousand seven hundred and fifty. Since that time, the Maltese have been almost constantly at war; and great numbers were again destroyed by an infectious distemper in 1676; yet such was the increase of population, that in 1798 Malta contained ninety thousand, and Goza twenty-four thousand, inhabitants\*.'

Such

\* The population of Europe is in the following proportion. On an equal space of ground on which there exists only one man in Iceland, there are

in Norway . . . . .	3
in Sweden . . . . .	14

in Turkey

Such a statement affords M. Boisgelin an opportunity for exultation, but his pleasure is embittered with a sigh :

' Where is the country, may I venture to ask, which can boast of such an increase, and such a continual state of prosperity? But the Maltese, who are naturally sober, require but little nourishment; besides, they were so perfectly contented with the mildness of a government which never taxed either the labour of their hands, or any other effort of industry, that they became too much attached to their country ever to leave it, well knowing that, in almost every other, both farmer and artificer were equally subject to burthensome taxes.

' A sovereign who expends his revenue in his dominions, must necessarily greatly increase the circulation of money, of which all his subjects must in some degree partake. This advantage, joined to the numerous institutions ever open to reward talents and industry, and at the same time to relieve the poor and unfortunate, so that idleness and poverty might be said to be unknown in Malta, rendered the inhabitants of that island but too happy under the government of the order; the opulence of which, alas! one moment served to destroy, together with the prosperity of the unfortunate Maltese!'

A short account of its trade is also given :

' The principal trade of the island consisted in cotton, the growth of the country, and which was of a much superior quality to that brought from the Levant. It was exported either in bales, worked up into cloths and coarse stuffs, or in its spun state. The greatest part was sent into Spain for the manufactures in Catalonia.

' The payments were made in piastres (pieces of eight), which the merchants sent to France, and there doubled their gains, by means of the profit they made in Malta on the different merchandises they brought from Marseilles.

' By a very accurate extract from the books of the custom-house of the grand-master, exhibiting the exact quantity of cotton spun in Malta from the year 1788 to 1798, it appears that there was usually exported every year to the value of 2,750,000 French livres. This, with the export of their manufactured goods, joined to their home

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in Turkey . . . . .	36
in Poland . . . . .	52
in Spain . . . . .	63
in Ireland . . . . .	99
in Switzerland . . . . .	114
in Great Britain . . . . .	119
in Germany . . . . .	127
in England alone . . . . .	152
in France . . . . .	153
in Italy . . . . .	172
in the kingdom of Naples . . . . .	192
in the Republic of Venice . . . . .	196
in Holland . . . . .	224
in Malta . . . . .	1103

consumption, made the produce of the cotton in Malta and Goza amount to more than 3,000,000 French livres (125,000l. sterling).

The other articles of commerce were but trifling, and consisted principally in ashes of *kakmagnum*, which the Maltese sent to Venice; *lieben*, which they sold in Sicily; oranges, sent to all parts of the world; orange-flower water, put into copper bottles tinned, and called *stagnone*; lemons; preserved apricots, distinguished by the name of *Alexandrini*; excellent pomegranates; honey, which always remains in a liquid state: seeds of different kinds; such as cabbage, brocoli, melon, cumin, and aniseed: kali of an excellent quality: and Maltese stone, which was a great article of commerce in Sicily, the Levant, and particularly at Smyrna. They likewise exported some pieces of fillagree, a sort of work in which the Maltese greatly excelled; also clocks, and boilers, which were as good and as lightly made as those from the Levant.

If the profit arising from the sale of so many different articles appears very great, it must be considered, on the other hand, that the Maltese were under the necessity of importing corn, cloth, wood, wine, oil, brandy, &c. The natural productions of the island were, indeed, but very trifling in comparison with what they were forced to buy from other countries; and their profit from the above-mentioned articles would have been even insufficient to purchase grain for home consumptions.

It is a certain fact, that the corn grown in Malta would not furnish more than one third of the inhabitants with bread; we will therefore suppose that the islands of Malta and Goza contained a hundred thousand persons, and in that case it plainly appears that sixty-six thousand would have been absolutely destitute of food, had it not been for the corn imported from Sicily and other places.

The Knight's motive in this representation is sufficiently obvious. — Our readers must excuse us, if we pass over in silence the catacombs, caves, and other curiosities of the island; and if we omit the several details of M. Boisgelin relative to Natural History, in order to afford room for the description of the Maltese; which, from a gentleman who has resided long in the island, may be supposed to be tolerably faithful:

Their countenances announce an African origin. They are short, strong, plump, with curled hair, flat noses, turned up lips, and the colour of their skins is the same as that of the inhabitants of the states of Barbary: their language is also so nearly the same, that they perfectly understand each other.

It is, perhaps, as much owing to the situation of Malta, as to the different strangers who have visited and conquered the island, that the Maltese have become very industrious, active, faithful, economical, courageous, and the best sailors in the Mediterranean. But, notwithstanding these good qualities, they still retain some of the defects generally attributed to the Africans; and are mercenary, passionate, jealous, vindictive, and addicted to thieving. They have likewise sometimes recalled the idea of the *Punica Fides*. They are fantasti

cal and superstitious in the highest degree, but their ignorance does not unfit them for the cultivation of the arts.

The Maltese habit (excepting that of the ecclesiastics, lawyers, and trades people, who dress in the French style, and are few compared to the people at large) consists of a large cotton shirt, and a waistcoat likewise very large, with silver, and sometimes gold, buttons; to these are added a *saban* and cloak reaching rather below the small of the back, and a very long girdle twisted several times round the waist, in which they constantly carry a knife in a sheath: they also wear long and full trowsers, with a sort of shoe called *korch*; but they do not often make use of the latter, having almost always both legs and feet entirely naked. This *korch* is merely a leathern sole, with strings to fasten it round the leg. They never wear hats, but blue, red, white, or striped caps. People of easy fortune usually carry fans in their hands, and wear blue or green glass spectacles; for such is the excessive heat occasioned by the reverberation of the rays of the sun from the stones, and white tufa, that, notwithstanding this precaution, there are many blind people; indeed the greatest number have very weak eyes.

The Maltese are remarkably sober; a clove of garlic, or an onion, anchovies dipped in oil, and salt fish, being their usual diet. On great festivals, they eat pork. Hogs are very common in towns and villages; many of these animals belong to the church and to different convents, and walk about the streets both night and day, where they pick up sufficient nourishment. They are seldom molested, and never stolen.

There are no people in the world more attached to their country than the Maltese; and their constant hope is to end their days in what they dignify with the title of *Fiore del Mondo* (The Flower of the World).

The Maltese women are little, and have beautiful hands and feet. They have fine black eyes, though they sometimes appear to squint, owing to their always looking out of the same eye; half of the face being covered with a sort of veil made of black silk, called *faldetta*, which they twist about very gracefully, and arrange with much elegance. The women, even of the highest rank, unlike their husbands, constantly preserve their *costume*; and any one who should adopt the French fashion would make herself very ridiculous. They are extremely fond of gold and silver ornaments, and it is not uncommon to see even the peasants loaded with trinkets of those two metals. Their dress consists of a short shift, called *kmis*; of a linen or cotton under-petticoat termed *Idil*; of a coloured upper one, which is generally blue, open on one side, called *gkesura*; and of a corset with sleeves, termed *sudria*. The back part of their neck-kerchief is fastened up to the head; and their hair, which is smooth, well powdered and pomatumed, is dressed in front in the form of a sugar-loaf, much in the style of the *saupées à la Grèque*, so long worn by the men. They ornament their necks with gold and silver chains; sometimes, indeed, with necklaces of precious stones: their arms are loaded with bracelets, and their ear-rings are in general more expensive than elegant. Their shoes-



shoe-buckles are extremely large, and always either of solid gold or silver.

As a proof of the happiness of the Maltese, and of their being satisfied with the government of the Grand Master, it is remarked that 'before the unfortunate events in 1798, these people were never known to murmur in the smallest degree. The sovereign was continually bestowing new favours on his subjects, who, in their turn, never ceased to lavish on him praises and blessings.' By the intrigues, however, of the French, the power of the governor and the comfort of the governed were undermined and destroyed.

Before we introduce any of the history of the Knights, it may not be amiss to present to the reader an extract relative to the manner in which these brothers of St. John of Jerusalem were professed, especially as we receive the account from one of the order. The ceremonies on this occasion are not less deserving of notice, than those which appertain to other fraternities of Knighthood.

M. de Boisgelin is particularly desirous of stating the form of the oath, because, he tells us, many authors have given a very false idea of it. On the following representation, we take it for granted, we can rely ;

"Those who are determined to dedicate themselves to the service of the sick, and to the defence of the Catholic religion, in the habit of our order, are received at their profession in the following manner :—They ought to be perfectly well acquainted that they are about to put off the old man, and to be regenerated, by humbly confessing all their sins, according to the established custom of the church ; and, after having received absolution, they are to present themselves in a secular habit, without a girdle, in order to appear perfectly free at the time they enter into so sacred an engagement, with a lighted taper in their hands, representing charity, to hear mass, and to receive the holy communion."

'They afterwards presented themselves most respectfully before the person who was to perform the ceremony, and requested to be received into the company of brothers, and into the holy order of the Hospital of Jerusalem. He then addressed them in a short speech, to confirm them in their pious designs, to explain how salutary and advantageous it was to consecrate themselves to the service of the poor in Christ Jesus, to be constantly employed in works of mercy, and to devote themselves to the defence of the Christian faith—a favour which many had vainly attempted to obtain. He proceeded to point out the engagement they were to enter into of perfect obedience ;—the severity of the rules, which would no longer permit them to act for themselves, which obliged them absolutely to renounce their own will and pleasure, and implicitly to comply with that of their superiors ; so that if ever they felt an inclination to do one thing, they were compelled by their vow of obedience to do another.

' He

“ He next asked the candidate whether he found himself disposed to submit to all these obligations; whether he had ever before taken the vows in any other order; whether he had ever been married; if his marriage had been consummated; if he owed any considerable sums; and if he were a slave: because, if, after having taken the vows, it were discovered that he had done any of these acts, or had been in the last-mentioned situation, he would be immediately stripped of his habit with disgrace, as a deceiver, and given up to the master to whom he formerly belonged.

“ If he declared that he had contracted no such engagements, the brother who received him presented him an open missal, on which he placed both his hands, and having answered all the above questions, made his profession in the following terms:

*“ Io N. faccio voto e prometto a Dio onnipotente, ed alla Beata Maria sempre Vergine, madre di Dio, ed a San Giovanni Battista, di osservare perpetuamente, con l'ajuta di Dio, vera obediienza a qualunque superiore che mi sarà dato da Dio, e dalla nostra religione, e di piu vivere senza proprio e d'osservar castità.”*

“ I N. do vow and promise to Almighty God, to the holy eternal Virgin Mary, mother of God, and to St. John the Baptist, to render, henceforward, by the grace of God, perfect obedience to the superior placed over me by the choice of the order, to live without personal property and to preserve my chastity.”

“ Having taken his hands from the book, the brother who received him said as follows: “ We acknowledge you as the servant of the poor and sick, and as having consecrated yourself to the defence of the Catholic church.” To which he answered: “ I acknowledge myself as such.” He then kissed the missal, placed it on the altar, which he likewise kissed, and brought it back to the brother who received him, in token of perfect obedience. Upon which, the brother took the mantle, and, shewing him the white cross upon it, thus addressed him: “ Do you believe, my brother, that this is the symbol of that holy cross to which Jesus Christ was fastened, and on which he died for the redemption of our sins?” To which the new brother replied: “ Yes, I do verily believe it.” The other then added: “ It is also the sign of our order, which we command you constantly to wear.” The new brother then kissed the sign of the cross, and the other threw the mantle over his shoulders in such a manner that the cross was placed on the left breast. The brother who had received him then kissed him, saying: “ Take this sign in the name of the holy Trinity, of the holy eternal Virgin Mary and of St. John the Baptist, for the increase of faith, the defence of the Christian name and for the service of the poor. We place this cross on your breast, my brother, that you may love it with all your heart; and may your right hand ever fight in its defence, and for its preservation! Should it ever happen that, in combatting for Jesus Christ against the enemies of the faith, you should retreat, desert the standard of the cross, and take to flight in so just a war, you will be stripped of this truly holy sign, according to the statutes and customs of the order,

order, as having broken the vow you have just taken, and cut off from our body, as an unsound and corrupt member."

"He then put the mantle on the new brother, tied it with strings round his neck, and said: "Receive the yoke of the Lord; for it is easy and light, and you shall find rest for your soul. We promise you nothing but bread and water, a simple habit, and of little worth. We give you, your parents and relations, a share in the good works performed by our order, and by our brothers, both now and hereafter, throughout the world." To which the newly professed knight answered *Amen*, (that is to say) So be it. After which, the brother who had received him, and all who were present on the occasion, embraced and kissed him in token of friendship, peace, and brotherly love."

The priests who have said mass then repeat several prayers; one of which is nearly the same with our prayer for the Bishops, &c.

"Oh almighty and everlasting God! who alone workest great marvels, send down upon N. thy servant the healthful spirit of thy grace; and, that he may truly please thee, pour upon him the continual dew of thy blessing, through Jesus Christ our Lord. Amen."

An ample enumeration is made of the property belonging to the several *langues* or languages into which the Order was divided, and from which a great part of its revenue proceeded: but for these particulars we must refer to the work. The table exhibiting the receipts and expenditure of the Maltese Government makes a poor figure when compared with John Bull's *Budget*. The annual average total of the revenue of the Order from 1779 to 1788 is estimated at 136,114l. sterling, and the annual expence of the Maltese Navy is given at 47,494l. It is surprizing to read that a Navy, which in some measure swept the Mediterranean clear of pirates, should have been supported at so small an expence.

Though the history of the Knights of Malta, which occupies the second Volume, commences with the Mastership of L'Isle Adam, yet, in order to give a more complete view of the subject, the author has prefixed a chronological historical table (with observations corrective of the errors of former historians) of the Grand Masters, and of the Hospitaller Order of St. John of Jerusalem; from the reign of Gerard, elected in 1099, to that of Philippe Villiers, de L'Isle Adam, elected in 1521.

With all the enthusiasm of a Knight of the Order of St. John, M. de Boisgelin relates the particulars of the siege of Malta by an army of 30,000 Turks, in 1565, during the mastership of La Valette. Many pages are occupied with the affecting narrative, of which we can only copy a few passages respecting the attack and defence of Fort St. Elmo:

‘ On the 21st of June the Turks returned in crowds to the assault, their whole army being in the trenches and at the foot of the wall. The bashaw, elated by the hopes of carrying the place, did not spare his soldiers; but he always met with the same courageous resistance from the besieged. Three times were the infidels repulsed, and three times did they re-commence this furious assault. Numbers of knights perished; and had not the close of day put a stop to the combat, they would no longer have been in a situation to resist the numerous enemies which pressed upon them on every side.

‘ This little respite gave them an opportunity of examining the great loss they had sustained; and they passed the night in listening to the groans of the dying, and in dressing each other's wounds. The bailiff de Negropont, L'Amirande, Dumas, and all the principal chiefs, gave every possible assistance to the poor soldiers; and thus, like true Hospitallers, worthily performed the duties of their profession. Reduced to such a dreadful extremity, they neglected nothing which might contribute to their safety, or at least delay their ruin as long as possible. They therefore employed an expert swimmer to cross the port, and represent the deplorable situation of the fort to the grand-master; who was much less surprised at this afflicting intelligence (which indeed he expected), than moved with compassion at the loss the order was about to sustain in so many valiant knights. He still endeavoured to contrive some method of sending them relief, and commanded five large boats to be armed, which were presently crowded by numbers of knights, all burning with zeal, and inspired by unfeeling courage; but all their efforts were fruitless, and they found it impossible to reach the fort. Those who defended it, having lost all hope, determined to die like good Christians and religious knights. To prepare themselves for this event, they took the sacrament during the night; and having tenderly embraced each other, they returned to their posts, there to die, and to yield up their souls to their Maker in the performance of their duty. Those whose wounds prevented their marching, were carried in a chair to the breach, and, with their swords grasped in both hands, waited with heroical firmness the arrival of those enemies they were incapable of seeking.

‘ The Turks began the assault at day-break, and shouted with the assurance of a victory which could now no longer be disputed; but the Christian soldiers still defended themselves with invincible resolution; and the certainty of dying with the knights, seemed to inspire them with an equal degree of courage. Some threw stones and fireworks, whilst others proudly advanced towards the enemy, whom they approached with the boldness of conquerors. Even those who were unable to stand, never ceased firing their muskets. But, after having stood the assault four hours, sixty men only remained to defend the breach; but these heroes proved themselves more than mortal, and, nobly despising death, still inspired their enemies with terror. L'Amirande, finding this post was on the point of being forced, called to his assistance some soldiers, who, till that moment, had maintained their place on the cavalier which had been made before the fort.

‘ When

‘ When the bashaw perceived the breach thus re-inforced, he immediately put a stop to the assault. As if disheartened by such an obstinate resistance, he pretended to retreat ; but only with the view of sending his Jannissaries to take possession of the cavalier which had just been abandoned, and, at the same time, to seize on the superior posts of the breach, from which the fort might plainly be perceived.

‘ The besieged took advantage of this respite to bind up their wounds ; not with the idea of saving the remnant of a miserable existence, but to give them strength to continue the combat a short time longer. At eleven in the morning the Turks returned to the assault with redoubled fury ; and the Jannissaries on the top of the cavalier, together with those posted in other parts, seemed to make choice of those they wished to destroy. Most of the knights were killed by the enemy’s fire ; and the few remaining soldiers, overpowered by numbers, perished in the breach. This terrible assault ceased at last, merely from want of combatants ; not one knight being left alive.

‘ The bashaw entered the fort ; and, struck by the insignificance of the place, rightly judged that the conquest of the Burgh could not be effected without much difficulty. “ What resistance,” exclaimed he, “ may we not expect from the parent, when the child, small as it is, has cost us our bravest soldiers ? ” It is indeed well attested that the Turks lost eight thousand men at this siege ; but, alas ! the loss of the order was much more essential ; three hundred knights and more than thirteen hundred soldiers having perished on this occasion.’

It is consolatory to find that such instances of courage and self-devotion, on the part of the knights, were not in vain, but that they at length succeeded in forcing the Turks to raise the siege ; by which event the Grand Master La Valette and the Order obtained the highest fame throughout Europe ; and potentates felt proud in giving assistance to repair the losses which they had sustained, and to make them more secure against future attacks.

Concerning the naval prowess of the Knights, one passage must suffice :

‘ The chevaliers Crainville and Tremicourt, who commanded the one a forty-gun ship and the other a frigate of twenty, met a caravan in the Levant, consisting of ten ships and twelve saicks, sailing from Alexandria to Constantinople. The comparative strength of the adversary only tended to inspire these two knights with fresh ardour ; and they instantly brought up their little squadron in the centre of that of the enemy, sunk some, took four of the richest, two of the smallest, and dispersed the remainder. The chevalier d’Hocquiecourt likewise, nearly about the same time, performed an action of almost incredible heroism, to the everlasting honour of his memory. This knight, while at anchor off the Dolphin island, saw himself  
blocked

blocked up by thirty-three of the grand-signior's galleys carrying troops to the isle of Candia. The flag-officer commanding this force landed, and, under his orders, showers of arrows poured upon the Maltese vessels from the most skilful of the archers. In the mean time the broadsides of the Turkish galleys were opened upon his ship; and the infidels, having succeeded in carrying away her rigging, prepared to board her both at the head and the stern; but Hocquincourt, as if invulnerable, defended himself on all sides, and, with a crippled vessel and crew, at length fairly beat off the Turk. This obstinate resistance greatly incensed the infidel general; who, ashamed of the slender efforts made by his galleys, forced them to open their line, and leave him a passage free to bear down on the Maltese vessel: at the same time he caused his crew to push forward his galley with all their force; but fortunately the violence of this effort threw Hocquincourt's ship out of the port, and a favourable wind springing up, he soon gained the nearest Christian port, after having sunk several galleys, and killed six hundred soldiers.'

The subsequent fate of this brave Knight is detailed: but, though the story is pathetic, we must restrain our pen.

When M. Boisgelin descends to more recent times, his pages are not less animated. In the 2d part of the history, he animadverts with spirit, and with a virtuous indignation, on the scandalous proceedings of the French towards Malta, both before and after its submission to their domination: yet his resentment against the plunderers of the island does not prevent him from applauding the patient conduct of the French army, under the numerous hardships which it sustained during the blockade by our fleet, previously to their being starved into a surrender of the island into our hands. The distress of the inhabitants cannot be better collected than from the following table of the price of provisions:

\* Different articles of provisions, at this time, were increased to the following exorbitant prices:

		<i>Liv. svs.</i>	<i>£. s. d.</i>
Fresh pork, <i>per lb.</i>		8 12	0 7 2
Bottle of oil, called	from	24 0	1 0 0
<i>Cartouche.</i>	to	28 0	1 3 4
Pound of sugar	from	43 0	1 16 8
	to	48 0	2 0 0
Pound of Coffee	from	48 0	2 0 0
	to	58 0	2 8 4

\* Large rats, especially those found in the bakehouses, were extremely dear, and in much estimation. Almost all the dogs and cats in the city had been killed and eaten, consequently were become exceedingly scarce. Asses, mules, and horses, had experienced the same fate; except, indeed, a few belonging to the French; which were absolutely necessary for the service of the garrison.'

Such

Such a scarcity, verging towards absolute famine, soon enforced the necessity of capitulation: but the French were so deeply impressed with a conviction of the hatred of the Maltese, that they particularly stipulated 'that neither the soldiers in the besieger's troops, nor the inhabitants of the country, should be permitted to enter the city till such time as the French troops should be embarked, and out of sight of the port.'

We were amused with M. Boisgelin's account of what we might term the coquetting of the Order with the Emperor Paul; who assumed to himself the Grand Mastership, and with whom the Knights were so delighted that they presented him a golden Cross, which had been *touched with St. John's band, and a piece of the real cross.*

Keeping steadily in view the object of his history, this writer takes his leave of us with urging the deplorable situation of the Maltese under any other government than that of the Knights, and the expediency of their being reinstated in the island; since they alone are capable of keeping up a continual war against the Barbary Pirates. How far M. de Boisgelin will succeed in persuading our Government of this fact, we shall not venture to hint: but we are of opinion that most of his readers will commend the temper with which he writes, and will wish that his asylum in England may be rendered so comfortable as to diminish his regrets on his expulsion from Malta.

The numerous plates augment the value of this work; especially the Chart of the Islands of Malta and Goza, on a large scale, which faces the title of the first volume.

ART. II. *An Historical View of the English Government, from the Settlement of the Saxons in Britain to the Revolution in 1688.* To which are subjoined some Dissertations connected with the History of the Government from the Revolution to the present Time. By John Millar, Esq., Professor of Law in the University of Glasgow. Vols. III. and IV. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Mawman.

**I**n the present volumes, which bring the subject down to our own times, the author continues his neat summary of the leading points of our history; and his observations on those political changes, whence arose the free spirit and benignant genius of our admirable constitution. The pages before us, not less than those which so long preceded them\*, display a laudable love of liberty, and a warm regard

\* See M. Rev. Vol. lxxvii. p. 106.

for the rights of the subject ; while they afford the same proofs of the author's sound judgment and just discrimination.

An introduction very properly apprizes us that, during the greater part of the period which intervened between the revolution of 1688 and the present day, we are not to ascribe our superior political situation to our excellent frame of government alone : but that we are to allow its due share to that disputed succession, which occasioned our rulers ' to act with extreme circumspection, and to abstain from every measure which might occasion suspicion and alarm.' Of this fact, it is highly expedient that we should be made sensible ; in order to prevent us from over-rating our security, and from cherishing the dangerous opinion that the exertions of our ancestors have dispensed with the necessity of vigilance in their descendants.

The Professor begins his third volume with a review of the Government of Scotland ; a part of the work which is highly interesting, since it discloses numerous particulars with regard to the antient polity of that state, which are little known in the south of the island. As a general cause which retarded the progress of the Scottish Government towards perfection, he considers the greater barbarism under which the country laboured, in consequence of its never having been subjugated by the Romans. He observes that,

' In tracing the history of the Scottish government, there are three great periods which fall to be distinguished. The first reaches from the time when Britain was abandoned by the Romans to the reign of Malcolm the Second. This comprehends the primitive aristocracy ; and is analogous to the period of the Anglo-Saxon government in the southern part of the island. The second extends from that reign to the time when James the Sixth of Scotland mounted the English throne. This corresponds to the reigns of the Norman, Plantagenet, and Tudor princes in England, and exhibits the circumstances which, from the nature of the feudal policy, contributed to exalt the power of the monarch. The third contains the interval between the union of the crowns of England and Scotland, to the union of the two kingdoms. In this last period, the Scottish nation had not made such advances in commerce as could produce any great alteration in their political system ; but the administration of their government was then rendered subordinate to that of England, a manufacturing and commercial country.'

The antient villeinage, and its progeny, the modern copyholds, are stated to be alike unknown to the history and law of Scotland ; as are also the inferior civil divisions of tythings and hundreds : while, like England, it had its shires governed by Aldermen or Earls, or their deputies the Sheriffs. From time immemorial, traces appear of a national council, consisting of



the proprietors and higher clergy. The members of it individually were very independent, and collectively were invested with almost the whole power of the state. The king could not put a negative on its decrees : but he was its head, and his suffrage was involved in its determination. In some instances, it considered the king as its executive officer, whose province it was to carry its measures into effect. This assembly adjourned its meetings, and appointed the time and place of its future deliberations. It consisted of the Barons, the higher Clergy, and the Burgesses ; and it formed but one house. James I. issued summonses to the inferior vassals of the crown to appear in Parliament, but this regulation was never enforced until the reign of James VI. The Crown latterly attained to a considerable ascendancy over the national council, in consequence of the functions of the Lords of the Articles ; who were at first appointed in order to facilitate business, but who came finally to exercise an absolute controul over the deliberations of Parliament. Charles I. procured an act to enable the Peers to elect eight Bishops, the Bishops eight Peers, and these sixteen to elect eight Knights of the shire, and eight Burgesses ; to all of whom were added the eight Ministers of State. No bills were to be submitted to the legislature, but such as had passed through the hands of this committee, and it is easy to see that the influence of the crown would predominate in it. The antient statutes, the author remarks, contain indubitable evidence of the highly aristocratical nature of the government in its early stages ; and the account of a sort of management with regard to those acts is too curious to permit us to pass it over :

The particulars above-mentioned, concerning the aristocratic nature of the government in Scotland, are proved by the most authentic evidence, that of the statutes, collected from the records, and published by authority. It is remarkable, however, that a great part of the statutes referred to, are to be found in the first edition only of that collection, published in the reign of Queen Mary, and, from its being printed in the Saxon character, known by the name of the *Black Acts*. In the reign of James the Sixth, when the prerogative had been greatly extended, a design was formed of concealing, as far as possible, the ancient state of the government ; for which purpose an attempt was made to suppress this edition : and another was published, in which those acts which appeared to demonstrate the high powers of parliament were carefully omitted. This mutilated collection is copied in the last edition of the statutes published in the reign of Charles the Second, which is now commonly used. The copies of the *Black Acts* which remain at present are not numerous, and the peculiar knowledge to be derived from that antient compilation is, in some degree, limited to those who are conversant in the legal antiquities of Scotland.

Scotland. The glaring imposition upon the public, thus attempted by the authority and direction of the crown, affords a noted example of the unprincipled measures of that reign, and conveys a strong presumption, that the old constitution of Scotland was diametrically opposite to the political views entertained by the sovereign, and to that system of regal power which he was labouring to realize.

The author ascribes the slow progress made by the royal authority in Scotland, in part to the geographical peculiarities of the country; which were such as favoured the independence of each chief; and in part to the poverty of the lower orders, which rendered it impossible for the crown to set them up as any counterpoise to the nobility.

It was not till a late date that the reformation was introduced into Scotland; the people were the instruments which effected it; and hence the author accounts for the difference between this measure and that which was established in the southern part of the island. James, we are told, in consequence of his accession to the crown of England, was enabled to reduce the power of the nobility without improving the situation of the commonalty. We have before observed that it was in his reign that Knights of the shire first sat in the Scottish Parliament. The qualification of a voter was fixed, it is true, at forty shillings a year: but this was not determined by the value at the time, but according to a survey made at a very early period, with a view to a tax then imposed on the crown vassals: the effect of which arrangement was to confine the election to a few great landholders. James new-modelled the constitutions of the Royal boroughs, by curtailing their privileges, and rendering their constitutions less popular. Though the church establishment admitted no distinctions of rank, yet James and his immediate descendants contrived to have Bishops to sit in Parliament; yet they were allowed to exercise scarcely any functions that were purely ecclesiastical. Thus was the monarch at once endeavouring to diminish the present stock of liberty, and to obliterate from memory the traces of its ancient sway. The Professor very justly remarks that these practices, which are too notorious to be controverted, ill agree with the hypothesis of Hume; which represents the Stuarts not as invading established popular rights, but as merely, from conscientious motives, defending from the encroachments of the people the store of prerogatives which had descended to them from their ancestors. The system in Scotland was more open, the event of it was more auspicious, and thus it displays more unequivocally the temper and design of the several sovereigns.—We are obliged to the

author for exhibiting these matters so fully and distinctly to our view.

Professor Millar concludes the present digression with a well wrought and highly flattering picture of his countrymen. Who will not forgive him his partiality in favour of his native soil?—a feeling against which sciolists for a moment inveighed, but which has been avowed and made their boast by the wisest and best men of all ages and climes.

The great advantages which England derived from the union of the two crowns under James I. as far as respected internal security, the influence of increasing manufactures and growing commerce on the state of society, and the changes which they produced in the situations of all the classes of the community, are here elaborately discussed; and this statement forms not the least interesting and agreeable portion of the present performance. The author nicely balances the opposite effects, arising from the introduction of mercenary troops in the room of the ancient feudal militia, on the one hand; and the dependence of the crown on Parliament for the means of subsisting them, on the other. He remarks that the union of the two crowns, the loss of our continental territories, our insular situation, the peculiarities of the naval service, and the jealousy of a people highly free and privileged, rendered the establishment of a standing army impossible, and account for the limitations within which the regal power was confined.

No persons can admire, more than ourselves, the masterly displays of extraordinary ability which occur in the various performances of Mr. Hume; nor can they regret, more than we do, his frequent misapplication of the rare talents with which he was endowed. While we lament the mischiefs occasioned by his metaphysical sophisms, scarcely do we less deplore those political paradoxes, in the construction of which so much ingenuity and dexterity have been displayed by him; and which, having no better foundations than artifice, misrepresentation, and falsehood, have proved so detrimental to the spirit of liberty in this country. It ought not to be forgotten that the advocate of the tyrannical and contemptible House of Stuart,—the apologist of its equally shameless and weak attempts to introduce arbitrary rule among a free and high minded people,—had, with the same apparent good faith and earnestness, laboured to obliterate all moral distinctions, and to efface all belief in a Providence and a Deity. We are glad to have it in our power to oppose to a guide so fallacious, yet so fascinating, a writer of the real estimation of Professor Millar. The following summary, though it differs widely from

from the conclusions of the favourite historian, is in our judgment fully warranted by facts :

‘ During the whole reign of James, the behaviour of the commons was calm, steady, and judicious, and does great honour to the integrity and abilities of those eminent patriots by whom the determinations of that assembly were chiefly directed. Their apprehensions concerning the prevalence of popery were, perhaps, greater than there was any good reason to entertain ; but this proceeded from the prejudice of the times ; and to judge fairly of the spirit with which, in this particular, the members of parliament were animated, we must make allowance for the age and country in which they lived, and for the occurrences which were still fresh in their memory. Though placed in circumstances that were new and critical, though heated by a contest in which their dearest rights were at stake, and doubtless alarmed by the danger to which, from their perseverance in their duty, they were exposed, they seem to have kept at an equal distance from invading the prerogatives of the crown, and betraying the liberties of the people. They defended the ancient government with vigour ; but they acted merely upon the defensive ; and it will be difficult to shew that they advanced any one claim which was either illegal or unreasonable. *The conduct of James, on the other hand, was an uniform system of tyranny prosecuted according to the scale of his talents.* In particular, his levying money without consent of parliament, his dispensing with the laws against popish recusants, and his imprisoning and punishing the members of parliament for declaring their opinions in the house, were manifest and atrocious violations of the constitution.’

Our records equally justify the Professor in his observations on the invalidity of the regal claim to levy taxes.

The remarks, which introduce the fine tribute to our immortal patriot, are highly creditable to the understanding and discrimination of the writer :

‘ When we examine the conduct of the four first parliaments of Charles, there appears no good reason for suspecting them of any design to alter the constitution. The circumstances of the crown were such at this time, as required particular attention to every proposal for new taxes, and rendered an extreme jealousy upon this point not only natural, but proper. From the alterations which had gradually and almost insensibly taken place in the state of society, the circumstances of the people with respect to taxation had been totally changed. The old revenue of the crown was become very inadequate to the expence of government ; and as the estates of individuals were liable to supply the deficiency, the nation was deeply concerned, not only to prevent arbitrary impositions, but also to limit those burdens which every member of administration had continually an interest in accumulating. Like sureties for a person in hazard of bankruptcy, it was incumbent on them to watch over the principal debtor, and to prevent his extravagance. As from the charges attending the civil and military establishments, the king could never be at a loss for pretences to demand

demand money from his subjects, it was from this quarter that they were most in danger of oppression, and had most reason to guard against the encroachments of prerogative.

'The alterations, at the same time, in the military state of the kingdom, were such as rendered unusual care and vigilance necessary to preserve the ancient constitution. While the feudal vassals continued to perform the military service, the people had the sword in their own hands; and consequently, the means of defending themselves from oppression. But after the substitution of mercenary troops to the ancient feudal militia, the nation became an unarmed and timorous multitude, without discipline or capacity for any sudden exertion, and seemed to be entirely at the mercy of the king, who levied at pleasure and directed the whole military force. Had no new circumstance occurred upon the side of the people, to counterbalance the additional weight thus bestowed upon the crown, their liberties could not have been maintained. But the necessities of the king requiring continual grants of money from parliament, afforded this countervailing circumstance, by rendering him dependent upon the national representatives, and obliging him to listen to the complaints of his people. It was in this manner only that the prerogative could be retained within its ancient limits.

'If parliament, however, had always been ready to supply the wants of the king; if they had never stood upon terms, and demanded a rectification of abuses as the condition of their consenting to taxes; their power would soon have dwindled into a shadow, and their consent would have become a mere matter of form. They would have soon found themselves in the same state with those ghosts of national councils, who continued to hover about the courts of some European monarchies, and were still called to give an imaginary sanction to that will of the prince which they had no longer the capacity of opposing. By good fortune, the imprudence of Charles, and still more that of his father, by discovering too plainly the lofty ideas they entertained of the regal authority, alarmed the fears of parliament; and the house of commons, by having the courage to *refuse*, preserved their privilege of bestowing the public money at a time when they had lost all other means of compulsion.

'In the history of the world, we shall perhaps discover few instances of pure and genuine patriotism equal to that which, during the reign of James, and during the first fifteen years of the reign of Charles, was displayed by those leading members of parliament, who persevered, with no less temper than steadiness, in opposing the violent measures of the court. The higher exertions of public spirit are often so contrary to common feelings, and to the ordinary maxims of conduct in private life, that we are, in many cases, at a loss whether to condemn or to admire them. It may also be remarked, that in the most brilliant examples of heroism, the splendour of the achievement, at the same time that it dazzles the beholder, elevates and supports the mind of the actor, and enables him to despise the difficulties and dangers with which he is surrounded. When Brutus took away the life of Cæsar, he ran counter to those ordinary rules which bind society together; but, according to the notions of his own age;

he secured the applause and veneration of the worthier part of his countrymen. To perform a great service to our country by means that are altogether unexceptionable, merits a purer approbation; and if the action, while it is equally pregnant with danger, procures less admiration and renown, it affords a more unequivocal and convincing proof of true magnanimity and virtue. When Hampden, by an appeal to the laws of his country, exposed himself to the fury of Charles and his ministry, he violated no friendship, he transgressed no duty, public or private; and while he stood forth to defend the cause of liberty, he must have been sensible that his efforts, if ineffectual, they were less calculated to procure the applause of his contemporaries, than to excite the admiration and esteem of a grateful posterity.

To the illustrious patriots who remained unshaken during this period, we are indebted, in a good measure, for the preservation of that freedom which was banished from most of the other countries of Europe. They set the example of a constitutional resistance to the encroachments of prerogative; accommodated their mode of defence to the variations in the state of society which the times had produced; and taught the house of commons, by a judicious exercise of their exclusive right of taxation, to maintain and secure the rights of their constituents.

It is a humiliating consideration that Britons owe their proud distinctions, and invaluable liberties, as much to the weakness of the House of Stuart as to their own firmness. The Princes of this race were not contented merely to invade their liberties: but they at the same time roused their apprehensions, alarmed their prejudices, and exercised on them the most galling oppressions. Let the reader call to mind the Popish marriage, the loan of the ships to the court of France to reduce the Rochellers, and the barbarous and inhuman proceedings of the Star-chamber.—The Professor fairly recapitulates the early proceedings of the long Parliament, and expresses his approbation of them. He also vindicates the sentence passed on the Earl of Strafford. The English law, it is certain, did not meet the offence of this grand culprit. If we regard the principles which regulate the measures of penal retributions, it will be (we conceive) difficult to shew that the awful visitation, which he experienced, exceeded the amount of his crimes: but our limits will not permit us to sketch the view which we should take of this delicate subject.

The author is of opinion that, had Charles I. submitted *bonâ fide* to the first demands of the long Parliament, the dismal consequences which followed would have been prevented:

‘If he had done nothing, in the mean time, to call in question the sincerity of his compliances, it is probable that parliament, and the nation, would have been satisfied with the redress which they had

procured, and with the amendments on the constitution which had been introduced. But they soon found reason to believe, that, in these concessions, the monarch was far from being sincere. When Charles called this parliament, he must have expected a good deal of clamour; that grievances would echo from every quarter; and that liberal promises of redress and amendment, as a previous step to obtaining supplica, would be unavoidable. For all this, it is not unlikely, he was prepared; and had made a virtue of necessity. But when he saw that the regulations proposed by parliament struck at the root of all his projects; carried their defensive operations into all the departments of the state; and would effectually prevent his recurring to those expedients which he had formerly employed in the extension of his prerogative, he was thrown into the utmost consternation and perplexity. Parliament had now shewn that they would grant no money except upon their own terms; and such was the tide of popular opinion, that, without their consent, no considerable supplies could be expected. There seemed only to remain, therefore, in his present situation, the alternative of abandoning altogether his design to change the constitution, or of endeavouring, by some desperate enterprize, to extricate himself from the surrounding difficulties.

We insert, without any comment, a portion of the author's view of the conduct of the parties in this awful struggle:

‘Whoever examines with attention the proceedings of this parliament, from their first meeting to the commencement of the civil war, will easily perceive that their views were somewhat different from those of the four preceding parliaments; and perhaps will find reason to conclude, that they did not continue, throughout the whole of this period, invariably the same. It was the object of this parliament to reform such parts of the constitution as were grossly defective; but their plan of reformation was necessarily varied and extended according to the pressure of circumstances; and in proportion to their discoveries of the hazard to which they were exposed from the temper and disposition of the king, they were led to insist upon a greater limitation of his powers. How far they were justified in all their demands, has been the subject of much controversy. To judge candidly of their behaviour, we must enter into the situation in which they were placed, and make allowance for the difficulties with which they were surrounded; we must also make allowance for the passions under which they were obliged to form sudden resolutions; for the jarring opinions, the irregular influence, and the accidental humours of individuals; for the slippery ground of popular favour upon which they stood, and for the errors and prepossessions from which, in an age when philosophy was far from its meridian height, they could not be exempted. With these allowances they will not only be acquitted of any bad intention, but will appear entitled to a high degree of approbation, even to the warmest gratitude of posterity. However much they might be tainted by enthusiasm and religious prejudices, they seem to have acted from pure and disinterested motives; and were neither seduced nor intimidated, upon any occasion, to swerve from

from those patriotic principles by which they professed to be guided. It would perhaps be difficult, even at this day, to point out a line of conduct more eligible than that which they pursued ; and which, with no greater deviation from the former practice, would be better calculated to frustrate the ambitious designs of Charles, or to guard against the attempts of any future monarch for subverting the constitution.

‘ That the parliament had, at this time, any intention to overturn the monarchy, and to establish a republican form of government, there is no good reason to suppose. After all the regulations which this parliament introduced, the sovereign still remained in the possession of very ample powers. He still would have enjoyed a voice in the legislature. He would still have exercised the power of collecting and disposing of the public revenue at his discretion. He would still have remained the fountain of honour ; would have nominated all the judges during pleasure ; and have had the sole privilege of declaring peace and war, with that of levying and commanding all the mercenary forces of the kingdom. In a word, his direct authority would have been more absolute than that of the British monarch at present. The patriots of that day overlooked a variety of limitations upon the crown, which the more enlarged experience of a latter period has taught the English nation to establish. They had no thought of a permanent provision, to prevent extravagance and bad economy in the expenditure of public money. They suggested no restriction with respect to the number of standing forces maintained in time of peace. Though they prohibited the king from extending martial law to the whole community, they put no restraint upon him in the application of that system to the army. They made no attempt to secure the independence of judges, by fixing their nomination for life. Having no suspicion of any undue influence which the king might obtain over parliaments, they permitted him to continue the same parliament as long as he pleased. In all these particulars, it was found necessary to make additional regulations upon the accession of William the Third ; from which it may with reason be inferred, that the parliament which met in the latter part of the year 1640, instead of being liable to the censure of doing too much, was rather exposed to that of having done too little, for preventing the encroachments of prerogative.

‘ With respect to the conduct of Charles during this period, we meet with no important variation : the same arbitrary system was invariably pursued, and by the same unscrupulous means of dissimulation and duplicity. To those, indeed, who look no further than the immediate transactions, and who are unable to trace the intention and motives of the parties, it may seem that the ground of the dispute had been changed ; while parliament was labouring to introduce a set of palpable innovations ; and the king, who certainly consented to these with reluctance, is presented to us in the light of a secret friend to the old constitution. This is the aspect of the controversy, which those authors who attempt to excuse or justify the monarch, are at great pains to exhibit, and to which they would willingly confine the attention of the reader. They endeavour to conceal, or to keep out of



of view, the former measures of the sovereign, by which he had subverted the fundamental laws of the kingdom, and the evidence which had occurred of his obstinate resolution to persist in the same designs. Thus they impute to parliament the offences, in reality, committed by the king; and represent as violations of the constitution the regulations which had become absolutely necessary for its preservation; that is, they consider as a poison the antidote given to prevent its baneful effects.

Professor Millar is more brief than we could have wished in discussing the usurpation, and treats Oliver Cromwell less favourably than he is represented even by Lord Clarendon.

The profligacies of the reign of Charles II. were too notorious to be denied or dissembled, and Hume himself shrunk from the task of glossing them over; for a just picture of its enormities, we beg to refer our readers to the volume before us.—On the subject of the Popish plot, the author thus expresses himself; ‘It was the offspring of alarm and credulity, propagated in all probability from a small groundwork of truth; and when it had grown to maturity, employed by an interested policy as a convenient engine for counteracting the pernicious measures of the crown.’—Mr. M. ably comments on the leading clauses in the Bill of Rights, and gives a history of the several grievances which they were intended respectively to remedy; he also shews that they were not newly-created privileges, but the antient hereditary rights of the subjects of this country.

Volume IV. commences with a review of the government of Ireland. The free spirit and the good sense, which accompany the author in other parts of his undertaking, do not desert him in this difficult portion of it.—The remaining topics are of a general nature, and though they are naturally introduced at the close of a performance like the present, still they are wholly distinct from it, and but lightly touch on what we regard as its principal object. They are, besides, almost wholly to be found in the pages of Montesquieu, and of Dr. Smith: but they will interest young readers, since they are judiciously applied, and agreeably discussed.

This work does not boast of new discoveries, but it illustrates and confirms sound views of our constitution; though the observations of the author be not the result of very learned and profound researches, they are solid and correct; and we are furnished with able and temperate comments on those principles, which form the basis of our public consideration and national prosperity.

ART. III. *The Works of Dr. John Brown.* To which is prefixed a Biographical Account of the Author, by William Cullen Brown, M.D., lately one of the Presidents of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh. 3 Vols. 8vo. 11. 1s. Boards. Johnson.

IN announcing to the public a new edition of the works of the celebrated Brown, it would be inconsistent with our usual plan to form a complete analysis of "the Elements of Medicine," or to enter into an elaborate discussion respecting the merits of the Brunonian hypothesis. Both the original doctrine, and the objections that have been urged against it, have been so frequently and so ably canvassed, that we could not expect, in the limits of a review, to advance any remarks that would be either novel or satisfactory. We shall therefore principally confine ourselves to the consideration of the new matter contained in these volumes; which chiefly consists of a life of Dr. Brown, written by his son, Dr. William Cullen Brown, the present editor.

The biographical preface of Dr. Beddoes, affixed to a former edition of the "Elements," is so well known, and has on the whole been so much admired, that we are unavoidably led to compare it with the present performance; and we think that each will be found to possess its peculiar merits. Dr. Beddoes was rather scantily furnished with information: but he has, in a great measure, compensated for this defect, by an acuteness of observation and keenness of remark on human nature at large, which produce an interest in his work independent of the immediate subject of it. The general cast of his mind seems well adapted for delineating the bold and impetuous character which he undertook to illustrate, and he felt no restraint in his comments on the vicissitudes of Brown's life, or the causes which might be supposed to have produced them; a circumstance that seems almost essential in those cases in which personal failings and irregularities have had so considerable an influence over events.—From situation, the present editor is better able to furnish a minute detail of facts; and he accordingly affords us an ample narrative, which, if it be less interesting as a composition, must be regarded as a more authentic piece of biography. He is naturally anxious to place the character of the deceased in a favourable point of view, glossing over his defects and dwelling on his excellences; a line of conduct which the sentiments of filial piety may palliate, if they cannot justify it. Between the two performances,—that of Dr. Beddoes, and the one now before us,—we conceive that a correct idea of Dr. Brown's life and character may be acquired.

In the present work, we are supplied with a full account of the first years of the life of this celebrated person; who  
seems

seems to have exhibited unequivocal marks of ability at a very early period, and to have cultivated his scanty means of improvement with unusual assiduity. Shortly after having entered the grammar school at which he was placed, 'he mounted to the top of the class of scholars', whence his progress was astonishingly rapid; and, in the 10th year of his age, he obtained the place of *dux*, which he never lost.

His principal acquirements appear to have been of a classical nature; and to the facility with which he composed in Latin, by which he was enabled to assist the students in the university of Edinburgh in translating their inaugural dissertations into that language, is to be attributed his change from the profession of theology (to which he was originally destined) to that of medicine.

It is well known that Dr. Brown first entered into public life under the patronage of the celebrated Cullen; who derived important benefit from his classical erudition, and treated him with peculiar marks of friendship and confidence.

'In what respects he proved of essential service to his patron, is so well known, that it need not now be considered as improper to mention the nature of their connection. Dr. Cullen, who was extremely deficient in classical erudition, conceived the idea of turning his pupil's intimate knowledge of the Latin to his own permanent advantage, which he perceived could be done in various ways. There were few literary or philosophical societies in Europe, to which Dr. Cullen did not belong. His correspondence was consequently very extensive, and necessarily maintained in Latin, a task to which he was little adequate. The value, therefore, of such a pupil, in preserving his credit on the continent, by acting as his Latin secretary, and gaining him as much reputation for literature, as he had acquired by his medical hypotheses, could hardly be sufficiently appreciated'—

'Such, again, was the unlimited confidence which Cullen reposed in him, that he permitted him in the evening to give a lecture, in which he repeated and illustrated the morning lecture of the professor; for which purpose he was intrusted with the manuscript of his preceptor. On the part of the pupil, many tokens of respect and esteem for his patron might be enumerated. For example, he named several of his children after those of Cullen; and, some years afterwards, he gave to the editor of these observations both his name and surname.'

After some time, however, feelings of a very different nature were experienced by these friends; Cullen appears to have anxiously endeavoured to crush the rising reputation of his protégé; while Brown, feeling or conceiving that he felt himself oppressed and betrayed, retorted on his patron with all the vehemence of disappointed ambition, operating on a sanguine and impetuous temper. Cullen probably cannot be acquitted of having acted towards him with duplicity, and of having encouraged

couraged expectations which he never intended to realize : but he must not be too harshly condemned ; and in opposing the election of Brown to a professor's chair, he might have been influenced by other motives besides those of envy and illiberality. Unless we attribute the subsequent conduct of Brown to the effects of this disappointment, we must acknowledge that, notwithstanding the brilliancy of his genius, his vulgar habits and his gross and licentious practices would have ill qualified him to fill the important situation to which he aspired.

From this period, his misfortunes and his irregularities of conduct increased with rapid and nearly equal progress. He commenced an avowed hostility against the professors and physicians of Edinburgh, and seems to have prescribed no bounds to his abuse of them. One of the circumstances, which appeared the most effectually to destroy his credit in that city, was an affair in which he clandestinely interfered in the treatment of a patient under the care of another physician ; an act which sets at defiance every principle of professional honour and integrity. This occurrence, of the truth of which we presume no reasonable doubt can be entertained, is related by Dr. Beddoes in a circumstantial manner, but is not noticed by the present biographer ; an omission which can scarcely be pardoned, even in the case of a son who stands forth as the apologist of his father's errors.—His career in London was short and disastrous ; every gleam of temporary prosperity seems to have produced an immediate recurrence to his habits of dissipation ; and it is probable that his premature death rescued him from a state of still more abject distress.

Notwithstanding the unfortunate career of Dr. Brown's life, it is evident that he possessed a powerful and vigorous understanding. Like many others, who are indebted principally to their own exertions for the knowledge which they possess, he was fully sensible of his own merits, and impatient to impress the world with an equally favourable opinion of them. He embraced his peculiar tenets with the warmest enthusiasm, and he experienced the utmost keenness of disappointment when he perceived that they were either contradicted or neglected. His attachments and his resentments appear to have had no limits ; and if to this consideration we add the total want of prudence and address, we may discern a satisfactory cause for the numerous calamities in which he became involved. Even his good qualities seem to have operated unfavourably ; since his perfect openness of heart made him an easy prey to artifice, and his warmth of friendship led him into habits of extravagance and dissipation.—The editor is anxious to controvert the insinuation thrown

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out by Dr. Beddoes, that Brown had never any extensive practice, and was not observant of the phænomena of disease :

‘How any man, (he says,) however brilliant his genius might be, without supernatural aid, could have raised such a superstructure, as he has done in his new doctrine, upon any thing but the most laborious and attentive observance of disease, it is not easy to conceive. Every deduction in the doctrine is the result of the careful investigation of facts; and though the same morbid phenomena for a succession of ages had been observed by others, it was reserved to his superior genius to discover the principle upon which they are to be explained, and to draw conclusions with respect to the practice, the importance of which renders his discovery of the greatest possible consequence to mankind.’

We cannot, however, acquiesce either in this panegyric on the ‘new doctrine’, or in the deduction drawn from it. We think that not only the events of Dr. Brown’s life, but the peculiarities of his hypothesis, clearly demonstrate that, at the period at which he composed his *Elements of Medicine*, he had seen little practice, and paid little attention to the morbid changes of the body. His system bears the most decided marks of genius and originality: but it seems to have been produced rather by the efforts of his powerful mind dwelling on a few facts, than by any extensive range either of medical learning or of practical observation. In confirmation of this opinion, we would remark that the Brunonian hypothesis applies much more correctly to the explanation of the train of healthy actions, than to account for the varieties which occur in disease; and hence we observe that, though the doctrine has obtained numerous advocates among those who have acquired their knowledge of medicine from books or lectures, few of those who have studied in the school of experience can reconcile its leading tenets to the facts which daily present themselves.

It has always been an object with minds possessed of great natural powers, but of little cultivation, to take extensive though inaccurate views of science, to attempt the utmost simplicity of classification, and to disregard what they conceive to be petty distinctions. Such imposing doctrines are sure of meeting with numerous advocates; both among men of genius, who eagerly catch at every indication of the same quality in others, and also among the indolent, who are glad to adopt a system which professes to relieve science from the labour of investigation. The Brunonian doctrine has run the usual career; when first started, it was embraced with an enthusiasm proportioned to the abilities of its inventor: but, like preceding theories, it has been found inapplicable to practice; and though every ingenuous mind must admit that it produced important improvements in medicine, yet

its professed adherents in this country are neither numerous nor respectable. On the continents, both of Europe and America, Brunonianism appears indeed to flourish with unabated vigour: but we shall leave our readers to decide whether this circumstance is to be regarded as a proof of the soundness of the doctrine.

Dr. Cullen Brown controverts, at some length, the unfavorable opinion which Dr. Beddoes expresses respecting the merits of Brown's style of Latin composition. Dr. Beddoes conceived that it displays a "labored perplexity" of manner; whereas it is maintained, in the work before us, 'that, since the days of Erasmus and Buchanan, no medical work has appeared in Latin, which, by a competent, intelligent and candid judge, in point of classical purity, energy, perspicuousness, and pregnant brevity, can be said, in any degree, to equal the style of the *Elementa*.' On this point, we feel obliged to dissent from the opinion of the editor; and however low an idea he may form of our critical acumen, we do not hesitate to declare that we consider Brown's Latin as obscure and turgid, and frequently consisting of long and perplexed periods; the words that are employed may be pure and classical, but their arrangement is certainly not deserving of those epithets.

In tracing the progress of his father's doctrine, the editor gives an account of the ferment which it occasioned, not only in the University of Edinburgh, but in some of the most distinguished medical schools on the continent. 'In Italy, in particular,' we are informed, 'the Brunonian system has found many warm admirers, as well as some opposers. As in other countries, candour, talent, and learning generally characterise the writings of the former; while ignorance, illiberality, and petulance, are commonly the prominent features of those of the latter.' Our readers will observe, from this quotation, that the son has not degenerated from the spirit of his father; and as an additional proof of this fact, we may request their attention to the manner in which he endeavours to controvert the objections made by Hufeland against some of the Brunonian doctrines:

'It would have been almost incredible to conceive, did not the fact stand upon record, that a man of Dr. Hufeland's reputation could have avowed sentiments so erroneous, and which so decidedly argue his ignorance of the principles of the new doctrine. His view of the system is so superficial and incomplete, as not to convey the most distant idea of its nature; his objections are trite, irrelevant, and unjust; his mixed praise and censure repugnant to, and incompatible with each other; and the proposed conjunction of the Brunonian doctrine with the preposterous chemical system, maintained in Germany by a few crazy people, misled by the extravagant and incomprehensible philosophy of

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Reil and Kant, is an overture at which common sense revolts. This language may appear indecorous; but it proceeds from the indignation excited, first by the misrepresentation of the new doctrine, and next by the proposed improvement of it, by its unnatural union with one (if indeed it be allowable to dignify it with such a name) engendered in the delirious brains of a set of men, as mad in usurping the name of philosophers, as the happier lunatic, mentioned by Horace, who fancied himself owner of all the ships that sailed along Helle-spont.'

It is no doubt possible that a good cause may be ill defended; but certainly it does not argue in favour of any doctrine or set of opinions, that their advocates deem it necessary to treat their opponents with the arrogance here displayed.

The first of the objections which are started by Hufeland is that,

"1. On the principles of the above theory, it is impossible to explain in what manner rest as well as exercise, invigorates the system; for, if the human body has received from nature its determinate portion of excitability, and life consists only in a successive exhaustion of it, nonconsumption may indeed preserve, but surely never can increase, it."

This objection, which our readers will be aware is nearly similar to what has been frequently urged before, the editor attempts to repel by supposing that the body is furnished with a continued supply of excitability by means of the process of digestion; and he observes that 'the process of digestion, which is always best performed in a state of rest, is gradually going on, and by the conversion of the food first into chyle, and then into blood, is adding fresh matter to the waste of the system, to the seat, or matter, in which the excitability is inherent, and consequently is occasioning an accumulation of the principle itself.' We may here remark, 1. that the repair of the material fabric of the body is a distinct operation from that of the excitability which resides in this material fabric; and it does not by any means necessarily follow that these effects must be contemporaneous: 2. we apprehend that this is altogether an addition to the original system of Brown; for we do not recollect that this circumstance is once suggested in the whole course of the *Elementa*, and there are some strong expressions which seem to prove that his sentiments were directly the reverse: 3. this idea, that the digestion assists in recruiting the excitability, is neither more nor less than the opinion maintained by Hufeland himself; against which we meet with so much violent and indecorous declamation.

Though the editor thinks that 'every proposition of the doctrine, when duly investigated, appears so plain, and the reasoning so forcible and conclusive, that while it bids defiance to

to refutation, it scarcely requires the aid of illustration; yet he has thought it proper to add, for the benefit of the unenlightened, a summary exposition drawn up by M. Bertin.

Besides a translation of the *Elementa Medicinæ*, these volumes contain 'Observations on former systems of medicine,' 'Outlines of the new doctrines,' and 'Observations on the present system of spasm as taught in the University of Edinburgh.' The former of these papers may be considered as an epitome of the *Elements*, and indeed consists principally of quotations from that work. The observations on spasm contain an attack on the Cullenian theory of fever, conducted with some ability, and much virulence.

As to the merits of Dr. Brown's great work, the public opinion, at least in this country, has at length become nearly unanimous. Personal animosity is now laid aside; and even in the University of Edinburgh, his doctrines are canvassed with freedom, both by students and by professors. The result is well known, their advocates are daily declining, and it is probable that in a few years they will be extinct. The hypothesis, however, has not been without its use, both as to the theory and the practice of medicine; and perhaps it may be said to have had more influence in this respect than any of its predecessors. The great merit of Brown, and that indeed in which he excelled former speculatists, is that he avoided all misplaced application of other sciences, and endeavoured to establish the laws of vitality from observing the phenomena of life itself. He did not look on the animal body as an hydraulic machine, consisting of a system of tubes and vessels; nor as a laboratory, in which a number of chemical operations were going on: but he noticed the effects that were produced on it by different agents, and from these observations constructed his hypothesis. Thus far he acted philosophically: but in the detail he was less fortunate; his mind was better adapted for striking out the grand outline, than for filling it up by a close attention to facts.

Dr. Brown's first error appears to have been that of confounding together the operations of the nervous and the muscular systems, and making his principle of excitability one and indivisible. The distinction between irritability and sensibility he totally disregarded, and thus deprived himself of the benefit of one of the most important discoveries of modern science. The position, that every Being is provided at birth with a certain portion of excitability which is continually wasting, and for which there is no source of supply, has been often noticed, as involving the hypothesis in insuperable difficulties. The favourite dogma, that life is a forced state, we regard as not less



objectionable. What idea are we to attach to the term life? are we to understand by it the property which is possessed by the animal of being acted on, or the actions themselves? If the former, we should say that the properties of irritability and sensibility exist independently of any foreign agency, as long as the texture of the body remains unimpaired; and, as far as we are able to discover, they are qualities absolutely essential to its existence:—but, if by the term life be meant the actions produced by the living body in consequence of the affection of its inherent powers, what more is asserted by this than that every effect must have its appropriate cause? The deduction from the position, that life is a forced state, produced the monstrous assertion that the operation of all medicines must be stimulant; a doctrine which caused one of the most pertinacious contests of theory against experience, which has occurred in the history of modern science. With what sentiments are we to regard the hypothesis that all stimuli possess the same identical power; and that the difference in their effects may be reduced to a difference in degree? The period, we apprehend, is not far distant, when it will be a matter of astonishment to the medical philosopher, that such a doctrine could ever have been advanced; and he can only view it as one of those singular aberrations of judgment, by which the mind is occasionally perverted, when it becomes heated by an enthusiastic attachment to a particular party or set of opinions.

If we find such weighty objections against the admission of the general principles of this doctrine, how many more obstacles present themselves when we come to apply it to the cure of diseases:—when we find apoplexy, plague, hydrothorax, and phthisis, placed in the same class; when we are informed that the remedies for them are powerful stimuli; and when we observe typhus, gout, scurvy, and dropsy, classed together in the opposite end of the scale, as depending on a directly opposite state of the body! Such an arrangement, if indeed it can deserve that name, is worthy of the writer who declaims against paying attention to the symptoms of diseases; and who condemns, as useless labour, all research concerning the means by which we attempt to discriminate them from each other\*.

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\* See Outlines, Vol. i. p. 98.

ART. IV. *An Abstract of the whole Doctrine of the Christian Religion*, with Observations. By John Anastasius Freylinghausen, Minister of St. Ulrich's Church, and Inspector of the Public School, at Hall, in Germany. From a Manuscript in her Majesty's Possession. Imperial 8vo. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Co.

SCHEMES of Theology and bodies of Divinity afford less satisfaction to the intelligent reader, than their titles promise to confer. Those who undertake to compose articles of faith, or to exhibit abstracts of every thing necessary to be believed, are in general liable greatly to exceed all reasonable limits; and, under the influence of education or system, to represent the Christian Religion, which is beautifully simple in itself, as embarrassed with strange and perplexing dogmas. From a German Divine of the Lutheran Communion, we did not expect to receive a summary of *credenda* which we should peruse with pleasure, or which was calculated for the meridian of Great Britain; and though Mr. Freylinghausen's Abstract is recommended by a circumstance which does it much honour, and has been altered in certain places by the Editor to accommodate it to the doctrines of the Church of England, it exhibits in our estimation a character which must prevent it from becoming popular in this country. It includes 27 articles, the substance of which the author undertakes to explain in the form of question and answer: but we are persuaded that his illustrations will here obtain for him little reputation either as a divine or as a philosopher. On the subject of the Creation, he informs his pupils that, on the third day, when the dry land appeared, it '*spontaneously* brought forth various plants and herbs,' as if these productions were independent of divine power; and that 'much of this immense work (the creation) had been the result of the mere laws of motion\*'; though he says afterward that it was effected 'merely by the Almighty will, without either preparation or fatigue, producing visible things from things that were before invisible.' He adds that God performed his work in six days, 'partly to instruct us properly to employ the six days allotted to our labours; and partly perhaps to give a *secret prognostic of the duration of the world*.'

To the question who is the Creator? the answer is, 'The Almighty Triune God'; and in the Observations subjoined, we are informed that 'all the external operations of the Divinity are equally attributed to the three persons; but that the *internal*, or such as are performed in the very bosom of the Divinity, belong to one or two of the persons in particular.'

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\* Does this lecturer suppose that laws of motion existed previously to the existence of matter?

A long chapter is assigned to the subject of Angels, in which the difference among them is specified ; and to the question How do the wicked Angels employ themselves ? this answer is given :

' In the same manner as the good angels have their particular functions allotted them, so also are the devils in constant employment ; but all their operations tend to counteract the will of God, and subvert the happiness of man ; having not only been the original cause of the fall of man, but being still continually busied in preventing his knowledge of the newly-revealed salvation through Christ, in endeavouring to divert the faithful from it, and in seeking to devour them.

' *Ob.*—Bad angels are thus employed : 1st, With *wicked men*, who are called *children of the devil*, on account of their resemblance to him ; in striving to keep them in his subjection ; in blinding their minds, and snatching away the word from their hearts ; in enticing them to evil, by suggesting evil thoughts, and furnishing occasions for sinful deeds ; in seeking every means to hurt them, and to shorten the period of their lives. 2dly, With *the godly*, to whom, however, they must, in spite of themselves and of all their efforts, be in the end serviceable ; in endeavouring to seduce them ; in seeking every opportunity to afflict them ; inwardly by the suggestion of evil thoughts and desires ; and outwardly by exposing them to various troubles and misfortunes ; in accusing them before God, in order to lessen his favour towards them, and to induce him to chastise them ; in striving to hurt them by every possible means, and particularly to molest them at the hour of death.'

To justify the last assertion, a reference is made to 2 Cor. xii. 7 : but we can find nothing in this text to authorize such an opinion.

Miracles are divided into *immediate* and *mediate* : i. e. into such as God performs merely through his own omnipotence, and such as he effects by the use of means or instruments. This division we understand : but we cannot comprehend Mr. F.'s meaning in the subjoined ' N. B.—when God works miracles by the means of angels, they are not, strictly speaking, miracles, but are only called so with regard to the common laws of nature.'

On the Sacrifice of Christ, it is remarked ' that he hath actually performed all their duties, and hath fully satisfied God in all things that he requires of men.' After this view of the Christian Doctrine, the reflecting reader will be surprized at being informed that Mr. F. has given a section or chapter on the Final Judgment of Mankind.

The meaning of Christ's *descent into Hell* is thus explained : ' Soon after his resurrection he repaid, *body* and soul, to the abodes of the devils and of the damned, both to shew himself to them as their conqueror and to *terrify* them.' We must

honestly tell Mr F. that this is something *more* than the *whole* of the Christian doctrine. He acknowledges, indeed, that 'the proofs of this doctrine are somewhat obscure:' but it would have been nearer the truth to have said that there is not *any* proof for it.

*Original Sin* (a term introduced by St. Austin in the 4th century) is defined to be 'That horrid corruption of our nature which all men inherit by their carnal birth, as a spiritual infection; and to consist in a *total* incapacity\* for and alienation from what is good, and a propensity to evil.' On the supposition, however, of a *total* incapacity for good, all exhortations calling man to repentance and virtue must be perfectly absurd, as requiring actions from them which they are absolutely incapable of performing.

The causes of the Fall of Man are said to be *external* and *internal*. Of the first, Mr. F. remarks: 'The *external* cause, or the seducer, was Satan, (Moses does not mention him, as he only relates the event extrinsically), who made use of and possessed a natural serpent for that purpose, that he might approach Eve the more unnoticed; the serpent being probably an animal for which she entertained a fondness.'

We could give other specimens from this work: but the above, we apprehend, will be sufficient to prove that the author has never been in the habit of thinking much to the purpose for himself, and is poorly qualified to instruct others.

ART. V. *The History of France*, Civil and Military, Ecclesiastical, Political, Literary, Commercial, &c. &c. From the Time of its Conquest by Clovis, A.D. 486. By the Rev. Alexander Ranken, D.D. one of the Ministers of Glasgow. Vol. III. From the Accession of Hugh Capet, A.D. 987, to the Accession of St. Lewis, A.D. 1216. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

IT would be ungrateful, if we did not acknowledge that we have travelled agreeably and pleasantly with this compiler over the beaten ground which he has chosen to explore. His selection of matter is judicious, his statements are perspicuous, and his arrangement is well chosen. In the course of the period which the present volume embraces, the history of

\* The author's remarks at p. 84. cannot be reconciled with this representation. 'Man hath, after his fall, retained a *will* which may in so far be called *free*, because in earthly and temporal things he has a free choice of his actions. This freedom extends also to all those external actions which are the first steps towards conversion; such as the hearing and reading of the word of God, &c.; and likewise to the leading of a virtuous life.'—If man be capable of the first step towards conversion, how can he be totally incapable of what is good?

France grows in interest by combining itself more and more with that of Europe; and the times were fruitful in events which have had a permanent influence on the state of the world. The elevation of a new French Dynasty, the conquest of England by the Normans, the Crusades, the consolidation of the French monarchy, and the religious wars of Thoulouse, here distinguish the annals of that empire. Moreover, the reign, with which the volume before us commences, will at the present moment engage the greater attention, as being that of the founder of a dynasty which includes a longer succession of kings than any which the history of the western world records, and of the subversion of which we of this age have been the astonished witnesses.

The degraded state of the royal authority, the reduced situation and the mental imbecility of the reigning family, the favour of the church, and the influence of nobles, rendered easy the passage of Hugh Capet to a pre-eminence which was little more than nominal; the throne being at this time connected with more of duty than of either power or splendour. Hugh was besides the most potent of the chieftains of the age; his territory served as a barrier to the rest of the kingdom against the Normans; and he united to the first military renown the highest rank, and superior personal accomplishments. At this remote epoch, artifices were played off extremely resembling those which, on a similar occasion, have been practised under our own eyes:

‘Considering the imbecility of the race, the veneration of the people for them could not be great: caution, however, was necessary, to prevent that sympathy, which sometimes unexpectedly kindles into zeal in favour of the injured: it was of importance to rouse and confirm prejudices against Charles duke of Lorraine, uncle of the deceased Lewis V., the only surviving legal heir of the crown. It was carefully circulated that he had voluntarily abandoned the French interest and nation, by accepting Lorraine as a vassal of the emperor of Germany. Is it becoming the French people, it was urged, to prefer a deserter and foreigner, as their king; to one who had valiantly defended the kingdom, and chased the emperor, the lord paramount of this mean Carlovingian, into his own dominions? The temper of Hugh Capet, his deportment, his manly and royal qualities, were extolled. Visions and other instruments of superstition were published, as evidence of the approbation of him by Heaven. A testament of the late king was alleged and urged in his favour. Finally, an assembly of clergy and nobles was held at Noyon, in which he was unanimously chosen; and on the third day of July, A. D. 987, he was solemnly anointed king of France.

‘In ascending the throne of France, he had made little or no change, but in the title of duke, as Pepin had formerly done that of mayor, into king. His authority was nominally, but not really increased. The least attempt against the independent state and spirit of the ba-

rens, shewed him the precarious kind of tenure by which he held the crown. "Who made you a count?" said he, to Adelbert of Perigord. Adelbert coolly replied, "Who made you a king?"

We submit to our readers the estimate which the author has formed of the character and conduct of the first sovereign of the Capetian race :

'The name of Hugh Capet is great and venerable ; not merely on account of his wisdom and valour, and other personal good qualities, but as the first of a long race of kings, who for eight hundred years occupied the throne of France. By the Carlovingians and their friends, and by all impartial and sober minded men, he must have been originally considered as an usurper. For this usurpation, the imbecility of the race, and the insufficiency of the royal domains to maintain the government, present something like an argument of expediency ; but when more strictly examined, it is the mere plea of rapacity. It was in fact the success of Hugh Capet, which sanctioned his conspiracy ; and the long continuance of his race on the throne that he usurped, which has acquired for him respect and veneration.'

In the late instance of an extraordinary ascent to power in the same nation, though similar general causes conspired to produce the effect, yet, owing to the totally different circumstances of the country, we trace little resemblance between the recent transaction and the corresponding event of the tenth century. In antient France, the choice was naturally directed to the chief who could mediate with most effect in the differences of the great vassals ; who could protect the weak from the oppressions of the strong ; and who could present adequate resistance to foreign attacks. In the same manner, in modern France, when ten years of anarchy had levelled with the ground every institution which natural feeling and long habit had, with or without reason, endued with revered and imposing characters ; when society had become, as it were, reduced to its primitive elements ; when the country was at the same time pressed on all sides by a powerful and successful foreign foe, and the people were worn out and disappointed ; the prize of the supreme authority became open to mere power, and fell as easy a prey to the intrigues and daring of a popular General, as at an earlier period to those of a mighty territorial chieftain.

That very important era in French history, the successful reign of Philip II., surnamed Augustus, is described by Dr. Ranken in a full and satisfactory manner. The favourable circumstances which offered themselves to the politic monarch are minutely stated ; and the steps taken by him to improve them to the utmost are distinctly pointed out. It was he who laid the basis of the future greatness of the French monarchy. The author thus concludes his account of his reign :

'Such was the end of one of the longest and most prosperous reigns in the history of France; a reign which recovered the monarchy from almost all the weakness and calamities to which the successors of Charlemagne and the feudal system had reduced it. As Philip's birth, so desirable after his father's third marriage without a son, obtained for him the gift of God: so his rapid, important, and extensive conquests; his subjection, in comparison of what it had been, of the aristocracy; his expulsion of the English; and his restoration of the crown to a high degree of respectability among the states of Europe, justly merited, and confirmed to him the title of Augustus.'

We have formerly observed that the author of this work has adopted the arrangement of Dr. Henry; a method which we do not regard as in a general view so eligible as the long established mode of blending, more or less, with the civil and military history, the topics which are here discussed under formal divisions. These subjects do not belong to France or England exclusively, but to all the christian states of Europe.—Under the ecclesiastical division, Dr. Ranken gives a very elaborate account of the Albigenses, and the other anticatholics against whom the war of Thoulouse was directed. He repels, with great plausibility, the calumnies thrown out against them by the catholics, and which have been adopted (as he thinks) with too little caution by some protestants of great name. The supposed conformity between their discipline, and that to which the learned Doctor belongs, inclines him to support the account which traces this religious community to a very remote antiquity; and the presumptions which he adduces of their superior purity, at the time of the crusade against them, are conclusive in their vindication. They appear to have been the precursors of the Lollards, Hussites, reformers, and puritans of subsequent periods; and the Geneva platform, it is most likely, was fashioned after their model. The author's representations of Berenger's conduct in the controversy with regard to the eucharist, of the quarrel of Abelard and St. Bernard, of the lofty ambition indulged by the daring Hildebrand, of the disputes concerning investitures, and of the rise of the inquisition, add no inconsiderable interest to this part of the work.

As elucidating the height which superstition had reached in these times, the succeeding passage is important:

'The ceremonies employed to prepare the sacramental bread, were comparatively trivial and foolish: they properly preferred the best kind of wheaten flour; but they selected the grains of it singly with their hands; they then washed it, and put it in a sack made for the purpose: a servant of approved cleanliness and sanctity was entrusted to carry it to the mill; the grinding-stones were carefully washed and cleaned; covered with a priestly robe over all his body, head, and face,

face, his eyes excepted, he superintended the grinding, and devoutly sifted the flour. Two priests and two deacons, in their official dress, afterwards baked it with cold water, to preserve its whiteness, and formed it into suitable thin, small, round pieces, and, in latter times, into wafers. A novice was employed to toast them; the wood was dry, prepared, and charred for the purpose; and psalms were sung during the work. Such was the practice at Clugni, as related by Ulric, in his collection of the customs of that monastery.\*

Dr. Ranken has laborately traced the several steps which led to the final abolition of slavery in France. The view which is here taken of the rise of cities is also not less deserving of attention. The Doctor supposes, with reason, that some of these incorporations retained a part of the ancient liberties and immunities conferred on them by the Romans; that they enjoyed their magistrates, their peculiar customs, and their revenue; that this was the case particularly with Paris, Lyons, and Marseilles; and he observes that, in some of the earliest charters, it is expressly said that the royal grants are founded on their ancient customs and practice.

Our readers in general are perhaps not aware that, among the goddesses of chivalry who received the adorations of gallant and unsullied knights, many shone not less in mental culture than they excelled in personal charms:

\* Females, who had long been excluded, during the ages of turbulence, and extreme disorder, from general intercourse, returned in the eleventh and twelfth centuries with increased influence over society. They not only partook of the amusement of arms, but many of them received an education similar nearly to that of the most learned men. They were qualified to engage, and are found to have sometimes assisted, in the literary contests of the schoolmen. Without the knowledge of Latin they could not even be received into a monastery; and when that language was familiar to them, the whole treasures of learning were unlocked and easily accessible. The letters of *Eloïsa* shew the degree of elegance to which some of them attained in writing that language: and, with similar genius and diligence, many of them might equal her in the philosophy and eloquence of the times. Others had the same means and motives with her to cultivate learning, and they were surely incommoded with fewer distractions. Female schools and monasteries were extremely numerous; and many individuals in them are recorded to have excelled in the various branches of learning.\*

We incline to think that the hint with regard to his style, which we took the liberty of suggesting to Dr. Ranken in a former article, has not been wholly neglected; since we have found the perusal of the present volume far more gratifying in this respect than that of its immediate precursor\*: but there is still great room for improvement.

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\* Vide M.R. N.S. Vol. xxxix. p. 29.



In turning over these pages, we were frequently led to suppose that we were reading the history of England, and not that of France. Habit, and the predilection of a good citizen, may naturally account for this effect : but we advise the author to be on his guard against it in future. The historian of France should for the time forget his own country ; he should be devoted solely to the affairs of the empire of which he treats ; and if he shews partiality, it should be in favour of those whose concerns he has undertaken to narrate.—We believe that, on some former occasion, we hazarded a remark which we shall here repeat, for the benefit of our younger readers, because we think that it deserves attention from them ; viz. If a person does not render himself deeply and intimately acquainted with the history of France, he will labour in vain to become master of that of any other European country, without excepting even his own. The history of France is not only the best, but the only introduction to that of Europe ; and in saying this we have no apprehension that it will be considered as paradoxical, by any who have given attention to matters of this nature.

Though this work be chargeable with several imperfections, we regard it on the whole as a valuable addition to our stores of literature ; and we hope that neither the hospitalities of his flock, nor his pastoral visits, not yet the sociable pipe, will prevent the worthy Divine from bringing it with due speed to a close.

ART. VI. *The Correspondence of the late John Wilkes, with his Friends ; printed from the original Manuscripts ; in which are introduced Memoirs of his Life.* By John Almon. 12mo. 5 Vols. Boards. 1l. 15s. R. Phillips. 1805.

IF we in some respects approve the modern practice of extending biographical details by the liberal interspersion of letters, we are aware that it offers so strong a temptation to prolixity, that, unless the judgment of the editor be on the alert, he will often occasion languor, if not excite impatience. As a case in point, the present memorials of Mr. Wilkes might have been considerably reduced in bulk, without the smallest diminution of interest. Notwithstanding that Mr. Almon undertook to give the correspondence of his hero, he was not bound to copy every trifling letter ; and, as he professes not to write Mr. Wilkes's *private* life, most of the literary intercourse between him and his daughter Mary might have been suppressed. Two or three letters would have sufficed to manifest their mutual affection ; and we might have been excused from reading

reading about the capons and wheatears which were sent from the father to the daughter, or from the daughter to the father.

We are told in the Preface that 'Mr. W. wrote *some sketches of particular parts* of his life, but in such a peculiar style of indulgence, as made them totally improper for the public eye; and after his death, his daughter thought that she could not better shew her gratitude and filial piety, than by burning those sketches.' All persons of delicacy and virtue must applaud Miss Wilkes's conduct in this respect. Enough remains of the particulars of Mr. W.'s 'chequered and memorable life;' and it must be mentioned, to the credit of his present biographer, that he has endeavoured to depict him with fidelity.

These memoirs record Mr. Wilkes's family; his birth on Oct. 17, 1727; his education; his marriage with Miss Mead; the individuals with whom he associated; his first offer of himself as a candidate (unsuccessfully) for Berwick; his being subsequently chosen member for Aylesbury, first in 1757 and again in 1761; the publication of his *Observations on the papers relative to the rupture with Spain*; his ironical Dedication of Ben Jonson's play, "The Fall of Mortimer," to Lord Bute: the History of the "North Briton, No. 45," the General Warrant by which he was arrested, his papers seized, and he himself sent to the tower; his discharge on writ of Habeas Corpus by the Court of Common Pleas; his Correspondence with the Secretaries of State, and trials of the King's messengers; the consequences which resulted from Mr. Wilkes having erected a printing press in his own house, where a few copies of "the Essay on Woman" were printed, and which involved him in difficulties; his journey to Paris; his return to England; the duel between him and Mr. Martin; his second journey to Paris, during which he was convicted of printing a libel, expelled the House of Commons, and outlawed; his tour to Naples; his employment abroad; his second visit for a short time to England, and the influence on the public mind of his two letters to the Duke of Grafton; his third return, when he is committed to the King's Bench Prison; his Elections and Expulsions from the House of Commons; his being elected a city Alderman, afterwards Sheriff, and Lord Mayor; his appointment to the lucrative office of Chamberlain, by which he was in a great measure liberated from his pecuniary difficulties; his country and town residences; his death (in Dec. 26, 1797,) his will, &c. Among the letters to Mr. Cotes, written from Paris at the time of Wilkes's Parliamentary expulsion, we find one which is worthy of notice on several accounts; and which therefore we shall transcribe. It shews that a diplomatic appointment was an object

object of his ambition, which would have converted him from the bitter foe to an associate of administration ; and we know, indeed, that a lucrative city-office had finally the effect of quenching his opposition fire. Yet it should not be overlooked that he first states, in this letter, his opinion that *nothing remained to be done for the public cause.*

‘ Paris, Hotel de Saxe, January 20, 1764.

‘ MY DEAREST COTES,

‘ Philipps \* writes to me in a warm strain, to return immediately ; and, from the partial view he takes of my affairs, which is so far as law and the two houses are concerned, I really think him right. You and I, my beloved friend, have more extended views ; and therefore, as I have now an opportunity, I will sift it to the bottom, for I am secure of my conveyance. Your letter of the 10th leaves me no doubt of the certainty of my expulsion. Now give me leave to take a peep into futurity. I argue upon the supposition that I was expelled this morning, at one or two o'clock, after a warm debate. I am then, no longer a member of parliament. Of consequence, a political man not in the house is of no importance, and never can be well enough, nor minutely enough, informed, to be of any great service. What then am I to do in England ? If I return soon, it is possible that I may be found guilty of the publication of No. 45 of the North Briton, and of the Essay on Woman. I must then go off to France ; for no man in his senses would stand Mansfield's sentence upon the publisher of a paper declared by both houses of parliament scandalous, seditious, &c. The Essay on Woman, too, would be considered as blasphemous ; and Mansfield would, in that case, avenge on me the old Berwick grudge. Am I then to run the risk of this, and afterwards to confess by going away so critically — as evident a flight as Mahomet's was from Mecca ? Surely not.

‘ But I am to wait the event of these two trials ; and Philipps can never persuade me that some risk is not run. I have in my own case experienced the fickleness of the people. I was almost adored one week ; the next, neglected, abused, and despised. With all the fine things said and wrote of me, have not the public to this moment left me in the lurch as to the expence of so great a variety of law-suits ? I will serve them to the last moment of my life ; but I will make use of the understanding God has given me, and will owe neither my security nor indemnity to them. Can I trust likewise a rascally court, who bribe my own servants to steal out of my house ? Which of the opposition, likewise, can call on me, and expect my services ? I hold no obligation to any of them, but to lord Temple ; who is really a superior being. It appears, then, that there is no call of honour.

‘ I will now go on to the public cause, that of every man, — liberty. *Is there then any one point behind to be tried ? I think not.* The two important decisions in the court of common-pleas and at Guildhall, have secured for ever an Englishman's liberty and property. They have

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\* Philipps was now his solicitor.

grown out of my firmness, and the affair of the North Briton; but neither in this case are we nor our posterity concerned whether John Wilkes, or John à Nokes, wrote or published the North Briton or the Essay on Woman.

'The public, then, has no call upon me. I have steadily pursued their object; and I may now, after all their huzzas, fall back into the mass of common citizens. Does any one point suffer by my absence? I have not heard that it does. I know that many of the opposition are, to the full, as much embarrassed about my business as the administration, and detest it as much. I believe, both parties will rejoice at my being here. Too many personalities, likewise, have been mixed with my business; and the king himself has taken too great, not to say too indecent, a share in it, to recede. Can it be thought, too, that the princess dowager can ever forgive what she supposes I have done? What then am I to expect if I return to England? Persecution from my enemies; coldness and neglect from friends, except such noble ones as you and a few more. I go on to some other things.

'My private finances are much hurt, by three elections; one at Berwick and two at Aylesbury. Miss Wilkes's education is expensive. I can live here much cheaper than in London. And what is my duty, and you know is the object I have most at heart, her welfare will be better, in every point, ascertained here, with me, than at London. Shall I return to Great George-street, and live at so expensive a house? Forbid it, real economy; and forbid it, pride, to go to another, unless for some great national point of liberty! Perhaps, in the womb of fate, some important public or private event is to turn up. A lucky death often sets all right. Mrs. Mead and Mr. Sherbrooke are both old, and have no relation but Miss Wilkes. She is devoted to me, beyond what you can imagine; and is really all that a fond father can wish. I have taken all possible care of her in every respect. I could live here as well as I wish, for one half of what it will cost me in London; and, when Miss Wilkes was of an age to return to England, not a farthing in debt—which at present oppresses my spirits. I am grown prudent, and will be economical to a great degree.

'If government means peace or friendship with me, and to save their honour (wounded to the quick by Webb's affair), I then breathe no longer hostility. And, between ourselves, *if they would send me ambassador to Constantinople, it is all I should wish.* Mr. Grenville, I am told, solicits his recall. I think, however, the king can never be brought to this, (as to me I mean,) though the ministry would wish it.

'If I stay at Paris, I will not be forgot in England; for I will feed the papers, from time to time, with gall and vinegar against the administration. I cannot express to you how much I am courted here, nor how pleased our inveterate enemies are with the North Briton. Gay felt the pulse of the French ministers about my coming here, and Churchill's, upon the former report. The answer was sent from the duke de Praslin, by the king's orders, to monsieur St. Foy, *premier commis des affaires étrangères*, in these words: 'Les deux il-

lustres

l'astres J. W. et C. C. peuvent venir en France et à Paris aussi souvent, et pour autant de tems, qu'ils le jugeront à propos,' &c.

'I am offered the liberty of printing here whatever I choose. I have taken no resolution; nor will I, till I hear again from you. Favour me with your sentiments fully and freely.

'Your most devoted,

'JOHN WILKES.'

In detailing Mr. Wilkes's life, Mr. Almon has done him justice as an author; and to recall our respect for him in this character, he has copied some of his best political publications, particularly his Introduction to the History of England. The connection which subsisted at one period of Mr. W.'s life between him and Mr. Horne Tooke is very slightly noticed, and little of their correspondence is inserted, which rather surprized us. Medmenham Abbey is here described with more *decent reserve*, than in the Edition of the Letters of Mr. Wilkes, &c. printed in 2 Vols. in the year 1769.

As a public man, Mr. Wilkes had considerable merit, and his memory is intitled to the gratitude of his countrymen. With firmness and intrepidity he asserted the great principles of the Constitution; being alike inimical to absolute monarchy and to republicanism. His conduct in the affair of General Warrants rendered him justly popular; and 'the struggle which he made concerning the printing of the Debates in Parliament. forms (as his Editor remarks) an era of some interest in the English history. With respect to the House of Commons, it is certainly a fair and constitutional question—Have not the constituents a right to know the parliamentary proceedings of their representatives?' Since Mr. Wilkes's conduct in the case of the printers, Parliament itself seems to have acknowledged the affirmative of this question. His biographer also observes to his credit, that as a Member of Parliament he was diligent and faithful; that 'a more punctual, patient, penetrating, and discriminating Chamberlain has not filled the office during the last century; and that as a Magistrate also he was equally able, assiduous, candid, and just.'—After having noticed, with satisfaction, Mr. Wilkes's little bark struggling through the agitated waves of stormy faction; after having rejoiced in the success of his ministerial combats, with something of his own enthusiasm; after having followed him through imminent dangers, and seen him, like St. Paul, "in prison and in perils from his own countrymen;" we feel *ennui* at the tameness of much of the correspondence here offered to us, and lose a considerable portion of our respect for the undaunted patriot, when we contemplate him in some parts of his private life which are here exhibited.

From

From the testimonials of Mr. W.'s parental affection, as displayed in his letters to his legitimate daughter, we pronounce him to have been a kind parent: but the eulogium must be diminished when we scrutinize his conduct towards his illegitimate children, Mr. John Smith and Miss Harriet Wilkes. To both, we are told, he gave a good education: but, this duty accomplished, it does not appear that he anxiously concerned himself respecting their permanent welfare through the remainder of life. The former was sent to make his fortune in the East Indies, and the trifling sum of one hundred pounds was bequeathed to him as a legacy; apparently, indeed, he provided better for his daughter Harriet: but as Mr. W. died *insolvent*, no substantial proof of partiality in her favour was really produced. As a husband, no man ever behaved worse. We shall not discuss the reasons by which he strove to justify his separation from his wife: but we shall content ourselves with remarking that no defence can be made for the act of endeavouring to swindle her out of the annuity which he settled on her when they parted. The biographer admits that 'this was the worst feature in Mr. Wilkes's character.' He shews, however, a few more bad features. Mr. Barnard's suspicions respecting Mr. W. and Mrs. B. are allowed to be well founded; and with relation to promises, he did not adhere to Ariosto's maxim:

*"Senza giurare ò segno, altro piu espresso  
Basti una volta che s'habbia promesso."*

The breach of such sacred engagements seems to have been productive of the most acute and heart-felt disappointment to the widow and daughter of the celebrated Mr. Sterne. In conjunction with Mr. Hall, Mr. Wilkes had promised to write *the life of Tristram*; and to procure a subscription among his numerous acquaintance for this publication, the profits of which were intended to alleviate the pecuniary distresses of Mrs. and Miss Sterne, who were forced to retire to France. The letters from the young lady to Mr. W. and Mr. Hall will speak for themselves. They are "trumpet-tongued" against the cruel breach of Mr. W.'s word; and the note of the Editor, ('neither of these gentlemen performed their promise,') though given with no moral indignation, will serve to excite that feeling in the reflecting reader.

In the numerous letters of Mr. W. to his daughter, we find little or no amusement. Those which were written during his tour from Paris to Naples, and in which some entertainment might have been expected, are, to use a military term, little more than *an affair of posts*; and his journeys to Bath, to the coast, &c. are equally barren. Miss Wilkes's letters, in this age

age of writing ladies, merit little praise in point of elegance; and, excepting her good French, we should not hence suppose that she was so highly accomplished as she has been represented. The subjects are principally domestic arrangements; and the frequent recurrence of articles for the ladder, in Mr. W's letters, is rather disgusting. An Alderman is a kind of proverbial *gourmand*; and Mr. Wilkes here gives ample proofs of his judgment and taste in the science of eating. If he was not the very best caterer for the soul, perhaps few ever excceeded him as a caterer for the body.

ART. VII. *Letters from the Year 1774 to the Year 1796.* By John Wilkes, Esq. addressed to his Daughter, the late Miss Wilkes: with a Collection of his miscellaneous Poems. To which is prefixed A Memoir of the Life of Mr. Wilkes. 4 Vols. 12mo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Co.

WHAT evil star could have presided in Paternoster Row, when those generally cautious characters, the booksellers, were reduced to give 'a liberal price' for this collection of letters! Where must have been their judgment, or what must they have thought of that of the public? Mr. Almon, alluding we suppose to this series, pronounced the letters to be 'utterly insignificant and trifling;' and justice obliges us to add that we have not found reason to reverse his sentence. The Editor, indeed, informs us that this work, so far from interfering with Mr. Almon's publication, is in fact a supplement to it; being a continuation of Mr. Wilkes's correspondence with Miss Wilkes, from the year 1780 (beyond which Mr. Almon's edition of the letters of the father to his daughter does not extend) to so late a period as 1796:—but what is this continuation?—a mere tissue of bagatelles, uninteresting for the most part to all excepting the persons concerned, and only serving to prove that the philosophy of the writer was a mixture of that of Epicurus and Democritus. We are choaked with the string of eating memoranda; and if sparks of wit and humour occasionally appear, they peep out between sides of venison, legs of mutton, rabbits, lobsters, capons, soles, pipers, pork giskins, &c. Some of the letters are merely notes, which contain little more than "Pray send me a *Haunch of Venison*, and the last *Monthly Review*."—The most amiable trait of Mr. W.'s private character was his fondness for his daughter, for whom he seems to have entertained as enthusiastic an affection as that of Madame de Sevigné for the Comtesse de Grignan. Yet even of this we have too much; and we think that the world would

would have lost nothing, had these letters been for ever concealed from their view.

One benefit, however, has resulted from this publication. It has occasioned a *second* memoir of Mr. Wilkes, written with more spirit and force of language, with more acuteness of remark, and with a wider scope of reflection, than we find in that which was given to us by Mr. Almon. The political principles for which Mr. W. contended are here fully stated, and the errors of his opponents are ably exposed. We shall not follow the biographer in his regular historical march through the several periods of his hero's life, because the prominent traits of it must be fresh in the memories of most of our readers, and because we have cursorily adverted to them in the preceding article: but we shall transcribe, for the gratification of the lovers of the British Constitution, the luminous observations of this writer on the conduct of the House of Commons, and the state of parties relative to the Middlesex election, in the year 1769:

“On the 13th of April Mr. Wilkes was, a fourth time elected by a majority of 1143 votes, against Mr. Luttrell, who had only 296. The same day the House of Commons resolved “that Mr. Luttrell ought to have been returned.” On the 29th of April a petition was presented by Sir George Saville, from the freeholders of Middlesex, declaring that their intention was not, in voting for Mr. Wilkes, to throw away those votes, or waive their right of representation, and praying therefore against the return of Mr. Luttrell. Notwithstanding which it was finally determined, on the 8th of May, “that Mr. Luttrell was duly elected.” Mr. Wilkes's contests, like the battles of Homer, arose one above the other in progressive majesty. Not *within* the walls of the legislative assemblies only were they fought, but *without* also; in the wider plains of literature, of *general* intellect, and *general* feeling. In this, his fiercest and most important fight, the immortals descended into the war. The gravity of Johnson, biassed by its favourite political prepossessions, brought forward to the aid of power its impressive weight. The sage Blackstone, with his book of wisdom, the characters of which were attempted to be read against him, supported also the cause of ministers. Burke, more subtle, if less vehement than in latter days, broke his lance in defence of popular right; Burke, supporting as utility seemed to him to require, the people or the throne; and turning, like the poet's feigned Almanzor, in favour of the weaker side, the scale of fortune. Above all, the fiery, and the rapid, Junius, in dazzling armour, but his beaver down, coursed along the lists, scattering lightnings round him. Nor were the thunders rolled in the senate less awful than the eloquence of the press. Lord Chatham, how much soever he had once personally condemned Mr. Wilkes, was now, with the fulness of his great soul, of his party; for his party was that of the constitution. He quoted Lord Sommers and Lord Holt; “he called them honest men, who knew and loved the English constitution. I vow to God



(to Lord Mansfield, who defended the measures of the majority,) I vow to God, I think your Lordship equals them both in *abilities*. This House of Lords is privileged to interfere, in the case of an invasion of the people's liberties, and the case of the county of Middlesex is a case of such invasion."

"When the passions cease to be interested, a conclusion is often without difficulty arrived at, which is in vain sought for, whilst they are alive and at work. They are busy artists, and throw, with intellectual prisms, the hue of inclination upon almost every object.

"The *pour* and the *contre* of this question were doubtless agitated in its day with much and equal sincerity by many. With many it still, possibly, continues to be a question of intricacy. But as the great *British Statesman*" asserted to his constituents, with relation to the necessity of the late war, that it admitted of an easier and more positive decision than questions of a similar nature usually did: so, certainly, it appears to me, that "the Middlesex case" is of a far less dubitable nature than it was accounted at the time. It was by the Charter, the Great Charter of our Liberties, clearly settled, "that no freeman shall be disseised of his freehold, or liberties, or free customs, unless by the lawful judgment of his peers, or by the law of the land." It is also settled, by the decision of our highest court of judicature, "that every man has a right to his freehold by the common law; and the law having annexed the right of voting to his freehold, it is of the nature of his freehold, and must depend upon it." "It is absurd to say, the electors' right of choosing is founded upon the law and custom of Parliament. It is an original right, part of the constitution of the kingdom, as much as is Parliament, from whence the persons elected to serve in Parliament derive their authority, and can have no other but that which is given to them, by those that have the original right to choose them." The right of the electors to choose whom they please, is not indeed disputed; but it is said, they can only choose those who are legally capable of being chosen, and that an expelled member by the law of Parliament, which is the law of the land, is incapable of being elected into the same Parliament.

"The precedents on the Journals opposed each other. In 1698 a Mr. Wollaston was expelled, re-elected, and admitted to take his seat in the same sessions. Only thirteen years after, Mr. Walpole, "having been this session of Parliament committed a prisoner to the Tower of London, and expelled this House for an high breach of trust in the execution of his office, and notorious corruption when Secretary at War," was voted "to have been and to be incapable of being elected a member to serve in the present Parliament."

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"The recollection, that the great statesman alluded to *thought* in early life of this measure as the ministers of the day *acted*, ought to be an antidote to the vanity, which would tempt any of us to treat with arrogance those who hold opinions adverse to our own. He then was only beginning to think, or at the least had not learnt to think *alone*. Whilst he, however, was Secretary of State, was this resolution *expunged* from the Journals."

\* It is remarkable, that the resolution which seated Mr. Luttrell agreed in form with neither of the cited precedents. Both those resolutions not only mentioned the expulsion, but also mentioned its cause. The vote that excluded Mr. Wilkes, upon all the returns, assigned as the *sole* cause of his incapacity his expulsion, shutting out *intentionally* from the consideration of the electors, whether such expulsion was founded upon reasonable grounds or not. Nor was this the only point in which the resolution differed from the precedents, upon which it was said to be built. Mr. Walpole being returned a second time, and having a majority of votes, was adjudged incapable; but his opponent was not seated—the election was declared void. Mr. Luttrell, on the contrary, was received at once as the legal representative. Even according to their own construction of the law of Parliament, the majority acted irregularly. But surely it may justly be doubted, whether a practice (that of considering expulsion as virtually the same with incapacitation) of so late a date as this in question, were it even more clear and undoubted than it really is; so long subsequent also to the establishment of those laws by which the freeholders sustained their right, ought in justice to control or supersede that right? Surely it was rashness to conclude, because the borough of Lynn acquiesced in the exclusion of Mr. Walpole, the House of Commons assigning a most striking cause for their conduct, and sending back to the burgesses the member, to whom a minority of votes had been given, either to be rejected or re-chosen as the electors thought fit: that therefore the county of Middlesex was bound to acquiesce in the exclusion of him whom they had re-elected, no reason being given to them for his rejection but that he had been expelled—and that Mr. Luttrell should represent them without further appeal to their desires? Whether it be not fit to allow the House the power of expulsion, for flagrant offences, in the first instance, is not contested. The sending the member back to his constituents on such ground might be deemed a proper appeal to them; and it is not likely that the constituents would *often* differ, were the cause of expulsion assigned, from the judgment of those who appealed to them. If they persevered in so doing, their perseverance ought either to be submitted to (for in them is lodged the choice); or should the object be indeed so important, the incapacity should be made an act of the legislature at large. If the resolution now stood on the Journals, a discretionary power of disabling whom they would, would at this day be vested in the House. For any offence, political or moral, a majority might expel, and a member once expelled would instantly be thrown aside from public service into the obscure Siberian desert of inactivity; a dreary region “*unquam unde redire negatur*” till a seven years penance should have expiated his arbitrarily imputed sins;

“ Till the foul crimes, done in his days of nature,  
Are burnt and purg’d away.”

“ His demum exactis, perfecto temporis orbe,  
Devenere locos lætos, et amœna vireta  
Fortunatorum nemorum; sodesque beatas.”

‘ But it perhaps might be feared, that although within the guarded pale of this new elysium of purity and innocence, the “*pu’vates*,”

“*Quique sui memores alios fecere merendo*—”

the bestowers of gifts and favours, might still be found; yet that the free band “*qui ob patriam pugnando vulnera passi*,” as well as the “*casti sacerdotes*,” would be banished to “another air.”

In this view of the case, it is a happy circumstance for the country that, after a series of unsuccessful efforts, Mr. Wilkes as last obtained the obliteration of this resolution from the Journals of the House.

Mr. Wilkes’s character exemplified much of foresight, decision, and unconquerable steadiness. Of his style as a writer of prose, it is justly remarked :

‘ That it is not impassioned, but it has sprightliness, fertility of allusion, aptness of quotation, and terseness of phrase : it has also a careless air of anglicism, which is not displeasing, and which he much affected. His irony is playful, and sometimes poignant ; and through all his writings there is a vein of curious knowledge, such as a man of pleasure would not naturally be expected to possess.’

To Mr. W.’s poetical talents, we can offer no high tribute of commendation. Apollo does not appear to have “marked him for his own.” His lines intitled “A well known Character” [Mr. Garrick] are replete with malignity ; and vindictive poets are not aware that unless satire has some respect for truth, the envenomed arrow flies at random, and wastes its poison on the desert air. Who can say of Garrick, once the idol of the public, that he had “half wit and half sense ?”—The Epitaph on the Rev. Mr. Lloyd has more poetry, and is more creditable to the writer’s heart. We shall copy it :

‘ Inscription in the Church-yard of Bala, in Merionethshire.

Sacred to the Memory

of

EVAN LLOYD, Clerk, A.M.

of this Parish.

Born May 2, 1734 ; Died Jan. 26, 1776 ;

Aged 42.

‘ Oh ! pleasing poet, friend for ever dear,  
Thy memory claims the tribute of a tear :  
In thee was join’d whate’er mankind admire,  
Keen wit, strong sense, the poet’s, patriot’s fire.  
Temper’d with gentleness, such gifts were thine,  
Such gifts with heart-felt anguish we resign.’

The biographer tells us that Mr. W.’s letter to the King was delivered by his servant at Buckingham Gate ; whereas Mr. Almon says that it was presented by Sir Joseph Mawbey. Mr. A.

makes

makes no mention of the present condition of Mr. John Smith, Mr. W.'s natural son : but we are here informed that he is opulently and respectably situated in India.

ART. VIII. *Practical Discourses.* By the Rev. Richard Warner, Curate of St. James's Parish, Bath. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Robinson.

**I**N a dedication prefixed to the second of these volumes, Mr. Warner takes notice of the prevailing vices of the times; and though his zeal, we think, has led him to exaggerate, he appears to be actuated by the purest motives, and to be aiming at the best ends. Enumerating Clerical Deficiencies, he takes occasion to animadvert on that "zeal without knowledge," which involves in one general anathema all those whose consciences and convictions keep them without the pale of the establishment; and he censures that popish spirit, which denies the covenanted mercies of God in Christ to those who do not seek them through the channel of *human articles*, or the media of certain forms of *Church* government. In this part of his address, he introduces a note which records an instance of bigotry and inconsistency that is scarcely credible; and which, on account of the admirable reprehension of such conduct, and its contrast with the very opposite sentiments of a great ornament of the church and of letters, we shall here insert.

"In confirmation of these observations on the absence of charity in the Clerical character with regard to our Dissenting Brethren, we may adduce an high *orthodox* authority, the Author of the "Guide to the Church," and the "Vindiciæ Ecclesiæ Anglicanæ," &c. who, in contradiction to his own sentiments, respecting ecclesiastical regimen, and episcopal authority\*, omitted, in performing the solemn service of the last Fast-Day, at Christ's-Church, Bath, (of which he is lecturer) the following passage from one of its prayers; a passage, beautiful on account of the true Christian spirit which it breathes, and interesting from the novelty of the introduction of such sentiments, in such a liturgy, and on such an occasion: "And give us all grace, to put away from us all rancour of religious dissention, that they who agree in the essentials of our most holy faith, and look for pardon through the merits and intercession of the Saviour, may, notwithstanding their differences upon points of doubtful opinion, and in the forms of external worship, still be united in the bonds of Christian charity, and fulfil thy blessed Son's commandment, of loving one another, as He hath loved them." Will posterity believe that such a spirit could have been manifested by a Protestant Minister in the

" " A second mark of the *negative* kind which demonstrates the possessors of it not to be under the influence of the true spirit, is *disobedience to rule and order, and contempt of lawful authority.*"

DAUBENY'S Trial of the Spirits, p. 64.?

nineteenth century? *Tantane animis salescibus ira?* Will it not rather suspect that such compliments to the *spring influence of Episcopacy*, at the expence of all other modifications of ecclesiastical government, savour more of *caral passion* than of defecated love; that they are not the pure disinterested offspring of a *spiritual* attachment to the impalpable beauties of the *hierarchical form*, but rather the result of a pious aspiration after the tangible splendours of the *substantial mitre*? In what a different, more judicious, and more Christian-like point of view, did the liberal PARR regard this conciliating paragraph in the Fast prayer. "In truth, (says he) I think the general spirit and the general matter of that service highly honourable to the good-sense, the taste, and the piety of the persons who composed it. My heart, I confess, is always refreshed by the perusal of those supplications to Heaven, which are calculated at once to satisfy the enlightened and conscientious members of the Established Church, and to conciliate Christians, who dissent from it peaceably and sincerely. Such supplications are, I am sure, conformable to the benevolent genius of our holy religion; and for the best ends, they exhibit the best principles of that Church which, among other excellent lessons conveyed to us, in its publick forms of devotion, has instructed us to pray that 'God, the Father of our Lord JESUS CHRIST,' who is 'our only Saviour and the Prince of Peace, would take from us all hatred and prejudice, and whatsoever else may hinder us from godly union and concord; and that as there is but one body and one spirit, and one hope of our calling; one LORD, one faith, one baptism, ONE GOD AND FATHER OF US ALL; so we may henceforth be all of one heart and one soul, united in one holy bond of truth and peace, of faith and charity.'" "Be it observed, to the credit of the Church of England, that the prayer, in which the foregoing words are contained, is annually read upon a state occasion; and to the honour of the present age be it remembered, that the heavenly spirit of that prayer is infused into the service for the late Fast."

Pulpit discourses may be good compositions without being good sermons. In performances of this nature, we look for a style and manner suited to the solemn topics of which they treat, and to the important objects to which they are directed. Instead of setting down precepts by which these may be attained, we recommend it to the candidate for distinction in the sacred profession, to peruse and reperuse the works of this kind which are bequeathed to us by our choice Divines; by Barrow, Atterbury, Sherlock, Duchal, Jortin, Secker, Blair, Hurd, Porteus, and many others. Let him be thoroughly conversant with the invaluable pious labours of these great and good men: let him imbibe the spirit of their compositions; and his discourses will be truly Christian exhortations, partaking of the genuine unction of the sanctuary. We have little fault to allege against the compositions now lying before us, except occasionally on the score to which we have been just adverting; namely, that the manner in some instances is not that which best pleases us

in religious addresses: but it ought to be recollected that they were not delivered to a country congregation, but to a refined audience in a fashionable city. We shall insert a few specimens, in order that the reader may judge for himself.

Mr. Warner not only displays a spirit of genuine Christian forbearance, but is a zealous advocate for it, and repeatedly inculcates it as an essential part of the character of a disciple of Christ. In his discourse on the Christian spirit, he observes that

‘ Long experience has justified the assertion, that no disputes born with such fury, excite such malignant emotions, or impel to such fearful acts of violence and cruelty, as religious differences. Involving the dearest interests of mankind, and addressed alike to their hopes and fears, their understanding and their passions, the religious principle sinks deeply into the soul; and that peculiar modification of it, which is imbibed in early youth, twining itself round the heart, and becoming identified with the feelings and opinions of the mind, is consequently regarded with a parental fondness, that renders man quick to defend, fierce to resent, and eager to punish any opposition to, or violation of, this darling sentiment.’

Having in the same discourse very ably exposed the unreasonableness of a dogmatical and bigotted turn, he makes this animated appeal:

‘ Since man is reminded of his ignorance by every thing around him; since he has constant occasion to confess the weakness of his understanding, the erroneusness of his opinions, and the circumscription of his knowledge with respect to the most familiar matters, is it not irrational in him to arrogate to himself an infallibility of judgment in affairs that are removed still farther from his detection by their speculative, intricate, or mysterious nature? Is it not insolent in him to censure or despise his neighbour, because their sentiments may not accord on doubtful subjects or undefined points? And is it not criminal in him to make this difference a plea, not only for withdrawing from his brother mortal love and charity, esteem and confidence, but also for accumulating upon him contempt and obloquy, hatred and defamation? Worms that we are, creatures of a moment, when our lives are compared with eternity; inhabitants of a grain of sand, when our globe is balanced against the universe; weak sighted and narrow-minded, wretched and miserable, “and poor, and blind, and naked;” will does it become *those* who have stretched to the furthest verge of that limited knowledge which human imbecility is permitted to reach, to pronounce dogmatically that *their* religious speculations are exclusively right; that *they* alone, of all the tribes of mankind, have discovered the forms of worship by which the great God may best be propitiated; and that such as fall not in with their reveries, or entrench not themselves within the pale of their church, are involved in one general sentence of anathema, and ought to be regarded with unqualified disgust and abhorrence!

' Irrational, however, as this conduct may be, it is still more contrary to the genuine spirit of Christianity, than obnoxious to our most accurate notions of propriety, and our best views of the fitness of things. To allow to our brother a liberty of thought in matters of religion, and to abstain sacredly from infringing upon the rights of his conscience, is a duty solemnly and repeatedly enjoined by the blessed Author of our religion, and the inspired preachers of it after him, to "every one that nameth the name of Christ."

The succeeding passage, taken from the discourse on the friendship of the world, shews that the author, though insisting on holiness of life, is no advocate for unnecessary austerity; that, if uncontaminated by the world himself, he is no stranger to its ways; and that he nicely draws the line between the lawful and the unlawful in amusements and recreations:

' Let it not be thought, however, that by any thing we have now said, it is intended to level an indiscriminate censure against amusements and recreations, under all their forms and in every degree; because such general reprobation would be alike inconsistent with reason, and unsupported by religion. Innocent pleasures and harmless diversions, in moderate proportion, are sanctioned by both. Then only do they consider amusements as sinful, when their nature and tendency are such as to awaken improper associations in the mind; or when their repetition is so frequent, as to interfere with more rational and necessary pursuits, with the useful business of life, and the essential services of religion. Man, necessarily subjected to much evil both physical and moral, requires, and is intended by his Creator, to be solaced with occasional relaxation. The bountiful and good God who made him, is pleased to see him cheerful and happy; to behold him applying the means of felicity which He has prepared for him, with a grateful and a joyful heart. But then it is to be recollected, that all these streams of solace and delight which thus spring from the *DESIRE*, must be supposed to partake in some degree of the nature of their original Fountain, to be pure, refined, innocent, and virtuous; and consequently, that no enjoyments are sanctioned by God's approbation, which do not bear upon them the impression of these amiable characteristics. Hence it follows, as an undeniable conclusion, that all those pleasures and diversions, which, though not essentially vicious in themselves, yet operate either immediately or indirectly as incentives to vice; which gradually wean the mind from useful, honourable, and serious pursuits; which, by little and little, extinguish its fire, deaden its energies, and destroy its elasticity; which excite a distaste for the pursuits of virtue and the offices of piety, a disgust at the composed pleasures of domestic life and an horror at the necessary duty of solitary meditation and secret self-examination; that all these pleasures, diversions, and amusements, are neither pure nor refined, neither innocent nor virtuous; that they are unhallowed, pernicious and dangerous to the soul, and that no intimacy can be formed with them without incurring the enmity of God. Sorry am I, the authoritative voice of truth compels me to confess, that if we may judge of the nature and tendency of modern amusements from the  
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tinge which they give to the public character, we are bound to declare they for the most part deserve to be comprehended under one sweeping sentence of condemnation: since, to their destructive influence must be attributed, in a great degree, that disgraceful frivolity and effeminacy of manners; that total want of steadiness and consideration; that general laxity or dissolution of firm, manly, and upright principles; which all perceive, which most condemn, but from whose contamination few, alas, escape. Hence it is, that home is considered as little better than a melancholy prison; unless it be filled with crowds whom its wretched, thoughtless inmates can neither love, esteem, or respect. Hence it is, that the dear delights of family intercourse, the gentle charities of private life, the sweet emanations of conjugal attachment, are ridiculed, despised, forgotten. Hence it is, that the votaries of pleasure perpetually rush together into public crowds, to renew a stimulus, without whose action they would be wretched, and under whose operation they still find themselves dissatisfied and forlorn; experiencing the feeling of desolation in the heart of multitudes, and suffering the pains of disappointment in the very lap of expected enjoyment. Hence it is, that in the one sex the most licentious principles and profligate habits have been generated, matured, and stamped with the sanction of fashion, adopted into almost general circulation; and in the other sex, the refined delicacy, the retiring diffidence, the feminine softness, and the attractive sensibility, which address at the same time the heart and the understanding, the feelings and the judgment; are in too many instances exchanged for boldness, confidence, and masculine affectation. The mistaken female, dropping all the peculiar graces of her sex, imitates, in levity of manners and impropriety of attire, the pitiable daughters of public pollution, who, "forsaking the guide of their youth, and forgetting the covenant of their God," have fallen from their attractiveness as well as their virtue and religion; and are at once rejected of society, and condemned of Heaven.

It will be perceived by our readers that Mr. Warner is rather a rhetorical than a logical preacher: but the style of his sermons is polished, the composition elaborate, and the matter interesting; and they are well calculated to render men amiable in private life, valuable members of the community, and pious and enlightened Christians.

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ART. IX. *Essays, Literary, Political, and Oeconomical.* By John Gardiner, M.D., Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Edinburgh, Constable; London, Longman and Co.

THE term *Essay*, however unassuming it may be in itself, has acquired in literature a more important meaning: it does not announce the crude attempts of the youthful, nor the lame efforts of inexperience; it often designates, on the contrary,



contrary, the mature labours of first rate minds. We have seen it the denomination given to productions which have immortalized our most eminent geniuses; and which severally display the deep penetration and vigorous thinking of a Bacon,—the unrivalled subtilty and analytical powers of a Hume,—the lively wit, exquisite humour, fine sense, and elegant learning of an Addison,—and the energetic diction and luminous matter of a Johnson. Courageous must be the man, therefore, who, by prefixing this title to his lucubrations, designedly provokes a comparison with heroes of this high order in the republic of letters!

If, however, the author before us could be charged with this presumption, of which perhaps he is totally guiltless, it might be said in extenuation that there are not wanting numbers who keep him in countenance. Be this as it may, it is not in our power to associate him with our approved essay-writers; since we are unable to discover in his pages that originality and precision of thought, that vivacity and neatness of style, and those choice stores of knowledge, which distinguish the eminent authors of this class. He appears to be a thinking well informed man, of a sound judgment, zealous for religion and morality, and animated by the spirit of our free constitution: but we are sorry to add that his compositions are diffuse, that his facts are hacknied, and that his observations are often trite. The moral part of these discussions is very much in the manner of plain useful sermons; partaking in no small degree of that dulness, of which the fastidious are too apt to complain in those grave performances. Unelevated as is the rank, then, which we feel ourselves obliged to assign to the labours of this author, we yet do not deny that a very large portion of our fellow-creatures may derive benefit from them.

Dr. G.'s first essay consists of conjectures on the origin of language: which he regards not as matter of divine communication, but as the pure invention of man. He denies the reality of one universal language, and contends for the existence of several original distinct dialects. He solves the difficulty of their invention by a reference to the force of the principle of imitation in children, to the adaptation for speech of the organs of the human being, and to the necessities of his situation, as well as to the length of time in which language was forming. He rests much on the imitative principle in infants: but, in our opinion, though this enables us to comprehend the early and speedy acquisition of a language already in existence, it assists us very little in accounting for its first formation.

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We insert an extract or two as specimens of the author's manner of treating this subject :

' From the histories given us of solitary families, or tribes, uniting in larger societies, and the junction, afterwards, of these into nations or kingdoms, we must infer, man, through a long succession of ages, to have improved almost insensibly from a state of nature to the most civilized condition of which he is capable. In like manner, we must suppose language to have improved with the same slow pace, always advancing with the civilization of the people, from a barbarous jargon to a polished style ; but in every period of their history, sufficient for their state of improvement. Such, however, is the nature of language, that there will be in every original tongue nearly the same parts of speech, and formation of a natural grammar. In this, men are directed by a divine principle of reason, common to all, which may be denominated the common sense of mankind, capable, by the exercise of their external and internal senses, of conceiving objects, qualities, relations, and an accurate distinction of time, &c. which they express by certain arbitrary vocal sounds, called by grammarians *nouns, adjectives, pronouns, verbs, &c.*'—

' If the constitution of any language is examined with attention, by a person of thought and reflection, it will be found to be a work of art, in the formation of which, great ingenuity, as well as judgment, must have been employed. For the nice grammatical formation of a complete and regular language, from eight parts of speech, as in the Greek and Latin, and most of our modern tongues, must always impress us with an idea of its being the greatest, as well as the most useful art, to which human knowledge can arrive : the attainment of it, however, must always appear to be a work of almost insuperable difficulty. But whoever seriously contemplates the very gradual progress of language for many centuries, before it acquires its utmost degree of perfection, will cease to wonder at the difficulty with which he at first supposed language to be so artfully framed. Like the division of labour in a complex manufacture, which no one man could execute, it is by degrees brought to perfection, by the united industry of many hands. But in the invention, gradual formation, and improvement of a language, how great must have been the division of labour ; how many ages must have passed from the first creation of man ; and how many millions must have succeeded one another, and in every generation of them, several men of capacity and genius contributing each their mite towards the perfecting of their vernacular tongue ! In taking this just view of the slow progress of language, our idea of the great difficulty of its formation vanishes ; for the little that any individual might contribute towards the improvement of his vernacular tongue, would rather be a pleasure than a labour, as it would mark him for a man of discernment. This is somewhat more than conjecture ; for it is scarcely possible to conceive by what other means language could arrive at that degree of correctness and regularity in which it exists in several parts of the world where the art of writing is still unknown.'

Of this general and desultory method, we apprehend, our readers will not desire any farther examples. We cannot conceal our opinion that the author has neglected to avail himself of those sources of information, with respect to the mechanism of speech and the elements of language, which are preliminaries to the arduous inquiry which he has undertaken.

In his second Essay, Dr. G. combats the doctrine of the common origin of mankind, and contends for the formation of distinct races of men by the Creator. He infers this idea from the delight in variety which nature indicates, from the necessity of adaptation to climate, from the inadequacy of the common notions to account for the peopling of the earth, from the impossibility of emigration to given situations in which human Beings have been found, and from the physical and intellectual differences visible in different tribes of men. His view of the origin of language naturally leads to the hypothesis here maintained: but he too lightly passes over the difficulty of reconciling it to the Mosaic account. He must know that presumptions and suppositions will weigh little against the doctrine of the descent of the human race from a common stock, and that of the peopling of the earth by the descendants of Noah, which are supported by the whole tenor of the sacred cosmogony.

The third Essay treats on the formation of the minds of children previously to a literary education; and many hints are here offered, which merit the attention of those who are intrusted with the care of young children.

Essay iv. enumerates the causes which promote or retard population. The complete and masterly performance of Mr. Malthus on this topic has reduced to small value the works of his competitors on the same subject; and nothing can more strongly evince the service rendered to letters by that Gentleman, than the want of precision discoverable in every writer who attempts inquiries of this nature, and is a stranger to his book. The vast spring of population was a fact which could not be otherwise than well known, and had often indeed been mentioned: but it is strange to reflect how little its effects had been considered. To ascertain its laws, and to follow them into their consequences, was the field on which Mr. Malthus entered; in which he acquitted himself so ably and successfully; and from which he has derived so much well-earned fame and merited consideration\*.

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\* Mr. M. has lately been appointed Professor of *Political Economy*, in the New Institution of the East India Company at Hertford.

Dr. G. combats the practice of entails, on the ground of its inconsistency with the interests of a commercial country. Regarding our commerce exclusively, we could not well resist the conclusions drawn in these pages; and Dr. Smith has most clearly shewn that, applying the same criterion, our navigation laws would be obliged to give way. The present author is an admirer of these statutes, and he can only be so on political grounds:—on the same ground, then, we would ask him whether entails must not be tolerated? Without them, we cannot continue that stable aristocracy which forms an essential branch of our constitution; a power in the state which is a fair object, no doubt, of popular jealousy and vigilance, but which is necessary to that balance of the authorities, whence perhaps the perfection and security of our liberty principally arise.

The most laudable motives induce this writer to plead in favour of a commutation of tithes. He appears to be a firm friend to our establishments, civil and ecclesiastical; and to regard the clergy with becoming respect. To a substitute for tithes that shall provide for the due estimation of the ministers of religion, we should be most cordial friends; for we are sensible to all the benefits that would accrue from it: but we cannot dissemble the difficulties that belong to this delicate subject. We wish not to infuse despair into the philanthropic breast that is meditating on such plans, but only to inspire it with due caution.

In his fifth Essay, the author considers the topic of government much at large. He passes in review the abuses which have descended from feudal times, and warmly exhorts the antient states of Europe to remove them. He loses no opportunity of bestowing warm and appropriate praise on our own admirable and envied constitution; the history and ameliorating progress of which he traces, contrasting it as he proceeds with modern monarchies and antient republics. The conquests of the French in the late war, he thinks, were owing as much to the existence of feudal oppressions in the countries subdued, as to the demagogic acts of the invaders, and to their prowess in arms. On this subject, he remarks:

‘There were dispersed among the inhabitants of every country invaded by the French, manifestoes, declarations, and other papers; in which, after pointing out, in the most artful manner, that they were slaves, they solemnly protested, that they came, not to conquer, but to give them freedom and protection. Great pains were taken to disseminate these insidious publications among the troops with whom they were at war, in which were such flattering expressions of amity and brotherly love, that many of the poor soldiers were deceived,

ceived, and fought with reluctance in the day of battle. Large quantities of these papers were conveyed into the enemy's lines some days before an engagement was expected, and with an effect that was experienced with sadness and sorrow by the Austrian generals. The French have constantly and uniformly adhered to the same treacherous conduct, not only during their hostilities, but after the conclusion of the most solemn treaties of amity and peace. In proof of this assertion, we need only look to the humiliating state of the United Provinces, ruined and undone, in comparison of what they once were; and likewise to the Austrian Netherlands, sunk under the late French requisitions and martial law. What a downfall has the Republic of Venice sustained, after being robbed of her ships, of whatever was contained in her arsenals, of every thing that was valuable belonging to the state, or even to rich individuals, and after all, bartered to the Emperor in exchange for other valuable possessions!

The good sense and laudable spirit of the writer appear in the succeeding passage :

‘ Experience shows, that the most perfect code of laws cannot be adopted by all nations with equal advantage. It must vary according to the genius of the people, the degree of civilization to which they have arrived, the prejudices in favour of certain ancient laws and customs, manner of life, climate, religion, trade, and other circumstances. Freedom, however, ought not to be given perhaps all at once, and to its full extent, to people accustomed to slavery; for, notwithstanding some individuals may be made free with advantage, yet it has been found, that the sudden emancipation of a nation of slaves is dangerous. But, in civilized countries, there can be no hazard in advancing the subject to freedom, as far as is consistent with the nature of their present government and police. The repealing old statutes, that bear hard on the subject, and the making new laws, after due deliberation, for the increase of freedom, without materially injuring the old constitution of the country, is perhaps the true secret of rendering subjects happy, by making them free by degrees. But the love of power, so congenial to man, keeps monarchs from viewing their true interest; they see not, that from freedom proceeds the prosperity of a country, as it inspires genius, and excites to industry; which begets wealth, power, and all the happy consequences that distinguish a free people from the slaves of despotic Princes. Through the whole of this treatise, I have endeavoured to reprobate the despotism of Princes, as inconsistent with the happiness of the subject and prosperity of the country.’

Dr. Gardiner appears at a loss to account for the success experienced by French treachery in Switzerland, which he considers as a free soil: but he does not seem to be aware that, in several of the Aristocratic cantons, an odious monopoly of power existed; and that not much short of the half of the territory of that country consisted of vassal districts, in which the most galling oppressions and the most vexatious distinctions

tions were perpetuated, with more strictness, perhaps, than in the dominions of any feudal Lord or Prince.

Similar liberal views accompany the author in his concluding Essay; in which he observes on the causes that promote or retard the advancement of literature, commerce, and the arts. He shews a laudable anxiety to persuade his readers that an inseparable connection exists between these pursuits and a free system of government: the former, he contends, can only strike root in a free soil; for though they may seem to flourish for a time under the shadow of a beneficent despotism, the favourable appearance is of short duration, and they are sure at no great distance of time to fade and die away. He illustrates his doctrine by a reference to the case of Scotland; remarking

‘ That the effects of the Restoration upon the political state of England and of Scotland were widely different. In England, after that event, many of the laws, in favour of the rights of the subject, which had been passed by the Long Parliament, were adopted and ratified by the Legislature. In Scotland, by a rescissory act, all statutes passed after 1633 were abrogated; and by various positive acts, the prerogatives of the Crown were extended to a degree that never had been exercised, or claimed, by any of his Majesty’s ancestors. This alteration in the constitution of Scotland, had gradually taken place from about the end of the 16th century, but more particularly from the accession of James VI. to the Crown of England, in 1603. Before this period, the government of Scotland was more aristocratical than monarchical, as may be clearly discerned from the prerogatives exercised by the States of Scotland, upon the authority of both statutes and precedents: 1st, A power to resist the Sovereign, if he invaded the constitution; and, 2d, The King anciently had no negative voice in Parliament; while the States often restrained him in matters of government. 3d, The Scots Parliament often appointed the times of their meetings, adjournments, and committees to superintend the administration during the intervals of their meetings. 4th, The King could not make peace nor war without their consent; the people were armed by their authority; commanders, and even the guards who attended the person of the King, were sometimes appointed by them: They not only raised money, but, in some instances, appropriated it: They ordered the coining, and regulated the standard of money. 5th, The Lords of Parliament settled all the fees of officers of justice, of the courts of judicature, and of the officers of the King’s house. Faulty Judges were not to be restored without the consent of Parliament. It must, however, be acknowledged, that these powers were not regularly exercised by the States, nor were they always admitted by the Kings of Scotland; but there are examples, and even statutes to this purpose, in the early part of the Scots history. It appears, however, that the King sometimes complained that these were usurpations by the aristocracy; at other times they were sanctioned by his approbation.

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From this short representation of the ancient constitution of Scotland, will appear the great change made in the government of that country, by their Kings, after they succeeded to the Crown of England. This apparent submission of the nobility, and great landholders, to the encroachments of the Crown on their privileges, was chiefly brought about from the expectation of power and interest being conferred on them, and by the consummate address of artful ministers. Scotland did not, therefore, at the Revolution, receive the same benefit from the laws, that was enjoyed by the English; for their laws and constitutions were different. In that country, a despotic power was kept up under the administration of Lauderdale, Middleton, and other ministers, employed by Charles and his brother James. Even in succeeding reigns, when the government inclined to a milder and more equitable administration in Scotland; the minds of the people in general, in that country, continued still to have a great deal of that cast observable under an arbitrary power. This was owing to an aristocracy, which had always subsisted in the domains of the nobles, great landholders, and chieftains in the Highlands, with feudal and juridical privileges, which they often exercised with a tyrannical sway; to the great oppression of the subject, and debasement of the human character.—

It was in the royal boroughs, and in the sea-port towns alone, that arts and commerce were feebly carried on, by men of slender abilities, with small capitals, till about the year 1740, when some sensible men of property lent their credit, and employed their influence in extending the arts and manufactures of their country. But these patriotic endeavours were not, for some years, followed by that success that might have been expected from such vigorous exertions; for the people, in many parts of the country, were not yet free; nor were they fully emancipated, till that most beneficial act, passed in Parliament in 1748, abolishing the hereditary jurisdictions of the vassals of the Crown. Soon after this, a spirit of industry and enterprise, seized several men of wealth and abilities, in promoting the several manufactures carried on in this country; and, ever since, trade and commerce have been continually on the increase.

Since the year 1748, Scotland has produced more good authors in history, philosophy, and other branches of literature, and there has been a more general spirit for philosophical inquiry, than ever existed, in the same space of time, in any former age. From which it is easy to perceive how much that freedom of thought, and hilarity of mind, which always attend liberty and security, contribute towards the promotion of arts, commerce, and literature.

The subject of the connection of practical liberty with political prosperity, and a flourishing state of letters and arts, is one of the finest which can employ the human faculties: it accordingly calls forth the enthusiasm of the present author; and the most glowing passages, that occur in these volumes, are to be found in his concluding Essay.

**ART. X.** *Reflections on the Commerce of the Mediterranean.* Deduced from actual Experience during a Residence on both Shores of the Mediterranean Sea. Containing a particular Account of the Traffic of the Kingdoms of Algiers, Tunis, Sardinia, Naples, and Sicily, the Morea, &c. &c. With an impartial Examination into the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants, in their Commercial Dealings. And a particular Description of the British Manufactures properly adapted for each Country. Shewing also the Policy of increasing the Number of British Consuls; and that such Advantages may result to the English by holding Possessions in the Mediterranean, as nearly to equal their West India Trade. By John Jackson, Esq., F.S.A., Author of the Journey over Land from India. 8vo. pp. 200. 6s. Boards. Clarke. 1804.

**T**HE reader may here obtain the satisfaction of perusing a work written apparently by a master of his subject; and which well merits attention from the statesman, the merchant, and the man of letters. Mr. Jackson does not expressly state in what pursuits, and under what circumstances, he acquired the information which he now imparts: but, speaking of himself somewhat peculiarly in the plural number, he thus assures us that his remarks are the fruit of personal observation, and thus modestly characterizes his labours:

‘In the following pages we have not had recourse to the flowers of description, or availed ourselves of a traveller’s privilege, in magnifying his adventures; on the contrary, we have confined ourselves to a simple narrative of facts, drawn from experience, during a residence on both shores of the Mediterranean, which we have told in so unvarnished, so simple, and so plain a manner, as we trust will be intelligible to every reader. The following sheets contain no more than a digested journal or diary of actual observations, on the trade, laws, manners, and customs of the people we have had occasion to visit.’

To the statesman, this little volume opens a field for commercial industry, which, though well known and partially cultivated, admits of immense farther improvement. It is scarcely credible that this country, which on account of its commerce provokes so much hatred, prosecutes in an extremely imperfect manner a trade which is so near home as that of the Mediterranean; that she has no direct traffic with the Barbary states, nor with Sardinia; that, on all the coasts of that sea, we have scarcely one British consul; and that we entrust our interests to natives, who most grossly impose on us. The author is of opinion that we might establish, in this quarter, a traffic which would employ nearly 2000 sail of merchant shipping of all descriptions; and which would fall little short of that which we maintain with the West Indies.



Mr. Jackson imputes a high value to settlements in the Mediterranean islands; and Minorca, he thinks, ought not to have been ceded at the peace. He enumerates the commercial benefits which we might have derived from that island, and from Malta; and according to him a tonnage duty on the coasting trade, which by means of those stations we might easily carry on, would nearly defray the expence of the garrisons which they would require.

The merchant, also, will collect from these pages whither he can direct his adventure with the greatest advantage, the most proper place and the best season for taking in a lading, the weight or measure by which he is to sell or buy, the tariff according to which he is to pay, and the best method of stowing the commodity on board. He is likewise warned against the chicane which it will be attempted to practise on him.

Those of our countrymen, moreover, who seek general knowledge, will here meet with striking traits of national character; with facts illustrative of governments, manners, and usages very dissimilar to our own; and also with hints which will suggest inquiries with respect to natural productions very different from those that belong to our native soil.

The British Merchant is advised to be on his guard in his dealings with the Jews in these parts; and we learn from the author that

‘ There is more chicanery and imposition practised on the coasts of the Mediterranean, than in all the rest of the world.

‘ The Jews are very numerous in all the Barbary states; they are not tolerated in Spain, but were in considerable numbers in Marseilles, and the South of France till very lately; they were formerly excluded from Piedmont, but they are very numerous in the other Italian States, down to the Roman; they are not tolerated in Naples, Sicily, or Malta; there are a great many in the Austrian sea-ports, in the Adriatic. In the Seven Islands, Morea, and Turkey in Europe, they are not very numerous; and there are very few in Turkey in Asia, Syria, or Egypt. Whatever agreement is made with a Jew in any of the Barbary states, whether for purchase, sale or barter of merchandise, provided the particulars of the transaction are not registered by a *canciller* in one of the European consular offices, and samples deposited, and the parties bound in a penalty to perform the contract, the Jew will not abide by his agreement, however solemnly he may have pledged himself, if he has the least prospect of gaining by his breach of contract; and whenever he is reminded of his breach of faith, and non-performance of contract, he will shrug up his shoulders, and say *domane*, signifying he will perform it on the morrow; and he will repeat this as often as he is applied to. In most other places they are bound to perform, though the agreement is only verbal, provided it is in the presence of a broker.

‘ The

' The Jews have no flag, but are usually protected where they locally reside, and in some places enjoy nearly the same privileges as the natural born subjects. They never consider their word or faith pledged in the least binding, and many an Englishman has often cause to reflect upon his credulity; but when a person is well acquainted with their principles and their prevailing passions, some good business may be done with the Jews, as well as other people, particularly in making purchases, as the Jews will in general sell, provided they can make a profit, however small; but the merchant must be a competent judge of the article he is purchasing, otherwise he will most assuredly be imposed upon; the Jews will soon discover whether he is competent or not, and when they find him deficient, they will descend to all the low mean chicanery that can possibly be practised or invented, even to bribe the merchants' servants.

' It will be necessary to observe the same caution with respect to the Greeks, who compose a considerable part of the population of the northern shores of the Mediterranean. They are chiefly subjects of the Grand Signior, and are at present in a very deplorable state; they have a flag for their merchantmen, but that is not considered as an independent flag by other nations, and whatever insult may be committed against them at sea, they cannot easily obtain redress; the Greeks have no other power, except the Porte, to apply to for redress, and their complaints have very seldom been attended to. The Greeks being a numerous people, the Porte has always been jealous of them, and instead of redressing their grievances, which would soon make them appear respectable in the eyes of other nations, has taken every opportunity of reducing them by degrees to the most abject slavery. The Greeks finding every representation for a redress of their grievances treated with indifference, they now (it may be termed) take the law into their own hands; whenever a Greek ship at sea receives any insult from an armed vessel of any other nation, being too strong, the Greeks patiently submit to the insult; but whenever they meet with another vessel of that nation at sea, and can overpower it, the Greeks will most assuredly destroy every soul on board, plunder the vessel of every thing valuable, and then sink it; therefore it is considered dangerous meeting with a Greek ship of superior force at sea.

' There are also a great many Greek pirates, who are sure to find protection in those ports where there are no Turkish garrisons. The Greeks are a people who are by no means to be depended upon; they are always practising every low mean artifice that can possibly be invented; having no name or characters at stake, they are more barefaced and less cautious in their impositions than the Jews.'

To mercantile adventurers, the following information may be important:

' The *Armenians* are another nation or race of men who are not to be relied on with implicit confidence. They have no king or head of their nation, neither are they formed into a republic; they are deprived of all political authority; though they are much better than either the Jews or Greeks, yet whatever virtues are found amongst

them, are more from necessity than principle. In Armenia, and in those countries where they are in considerable numbers, no man can travel from one province to another without a proper passport; therefore, whatever fraud or crime an Armenian commits, he is easily detected. The Armenians enjoy the greatest part of the commerce of Turkey in Asia, Arabia, Persia, and the major part of the Caravan trade. The Caravan ships between Bengal and Bussora are usually freighted by the Armenian merchants to and from India. They are protected in their commerce by the Turks, who are of themselves in general but very indifferent merchants; and they usually employ the Armenian merchants to conduct their commercial affairs. They have a great many of the Oriental manners and customs, and have a few good traits in their character. The Turks treat them with more respect than they shew towards the Greeks. The Armenians are more submissive, harmless, and inoffensive, and do not possess so much of that vindictive spirit, so universal amongst the Greeks. There were very few Armenians in Italy or the Morca, and none in Barbary; but in Turkey in Asia they form the major part of the population.

We have met with merchants belonging to this people, whose society was very interesting, on account of their being equally conversant with the dealings of civilized Europe and those of ruder Asia; and whose traffic depended not less on the Caravans of the East, than on the consignments of the West. It is a remark not less curious in itself than deserving the attention of the same class of persons, that 'whatever the nature of the government may be, whether *hereditary* or *elective*, a monarchy, aristocracy, or democracy, provided the government causes its flag to be respected by other nations, whether from love or fear, it will have the same effect: the individuals of that nation will cause themselves to be respected in foreign countries, and carefully avoid doing any mean action that might in the least degrade their high national character.'

In the opinion of Mr. Jackson, Malta, even in a commercial view, is a place of the utmost importance: but for his statements on this head, and the course which he traces for the trade in the Mediterranean, we must refer to his interesting tract.

The author's observations on the subject of consuls appear to us very well to deserve the consideration of the public and government:

'The late conduct of the French, in sending an immense number of consuls and commercial agents to all the ports and cities of any consequence in the Morea, Levant, Egypt, &c. ought to have been sufficient to have opened the eyes of the English. Perhaps some of them were sent in a double capacity, both for political, as well as commercial purposes. However that may be, they were treated by the French government in the most handsome manner, which would always operate in

in their favour, and make them appear, in the eyes of the people where they were established, as men of real consequence. They had men of war to attend, and every respect outwardly shewn them, equal to so many ambassadors. The French would not have been at so much expence, had they not seen their interest in it, and the necessity of sending out so many agents to recover that commerce they had lost for a considerable time.'—

'The duties of customs alone, upon a very few cargoes of merchandise, will more than pay the salaries of all the consuls we have in the Mediterranean: and had England three times the number there, it would always be of increased advantage to this country. It is also a very unfortunate circumstance, that amongst the consuls and vice-consuls, a great many of them are not British born subjects; and from these gentlemen, we cannot expect that they will attend so much to the interest of this country, as the natural born subjects. We have no consul in Sardinia, though an extensive and fertile island; and there has not been an accredited British consul there, for a great number of years: should the government ever be pleased to appoint a respectable consul in that island, with a salary of about five hundred pounds per annum, they would soon see the great good the country would derive from it. The consul, for his own benefit, would soon import and export as many cargoes of merchandise yearly, as would pay in duties ten times the amount of his salary. This is equally applicable to many other parts of the Mediterranean.

'His Majesty's ships, as well as the merchants, labour under many difficulties, from want of a greater number of proper accredited British consuls; and the losses that are sustained, finally fall upon the country. The vice-consuls are usually Greeks or Italians, and therefore will always practise their impositions upon all strangers that employ them. When a man-of-war goes into any port for supplies, and there is no British consul, the vice-consul will not even assist them with the necessary supplies, unless he has a prospect of gaining thirty-five per cent. exclusive of the usual commission, which only serves as a cloak for their more exorbitant charges. We have known an instance, where one of his Majesty's ships was supplied by an Italian vice consul, who charged the man-of-war in the proportion above-mentioned; we discovered this imposition, by going into the market and purchasing provision for some English merchantmen. Some of the vice-consuls act in that barefaced manner, as if they really thought themselves entitled to make these extraordinary charges in time of war; these impositions alone will amount to many thousand pounds; most certainly more than would pay all the consuls' salaries in the Mediterranean: but the impositions practised upon his Majesty's ships is but very trifling, when compared with what the merchants lose in a similar manner.'

The uniform enormous impositions, practised by the native agents on their British employers, are thus explained by Mr. Jackson:

'We have taken a great deal of pains and trouble, to find out the cause why this extraordinary imposition should be thirty-five per cent.

cent. as near as possible : at length we discovered the reason from our Italian servants ; when we sent any of them to market to buy provisions, either for house or ship's use, we always found that they overcharged in the proportion we have mentioned. An Italian servant will not require any wages, provided he has the privilege of going to market ; he will also get a considerable sum from all the tradesmen employed. This practice appears very extraordinary in the eyes of an Englishman ; but we found that the Italians, Spaniards, and others, do it from religious principles, and the priests come in for a considerable share. When we have reasoned with these people concerning this practice, and stated the iniquity of imposing upon those whom they ought to serve faithfully, they have never acknowledged it to be just, but have frequently declared, that they were compelled to do it by the priests, who take this method of making the Heretics contribute towards their support. This is a common practice in Spain, in all the Italian states, Sicily, Malta, &c. &c. and every other part on both shores of the Mediterranean, where either Italian, Spaniards, Ragusces, or Greeks are employed ; and by every other people who have faith in a clerical absolution.'

Mr. Jackson's account of the effect of olive oil on the human body, which is said to be given from his own personal observation, is worthy of notice. He states that, in Tunis, where the plague frequently rages in the most frightful manner, the labourers employed in the oil stoves, who are smeared all over with oil, and who eat chiefly bread and oil, are never attacked with that disease : that they are never stung by musquitoes, scorpions, or other venomous animals ; and that, when any other persons are stung or bitten, they scarify the part with a knife, and quickly rub in olive oil, which arrests the progress of the poison.

We cannot follow the author in the very minute detail into which he enters, respecting the various exports and imports of which the traffic here warmly recommended ought to consist : but the interested reader must have recourse to this performance itself. Bonaparte, it is well known, pursues as one of the first objects of his ambition a pre-eminence over all the countries which command this inland main ; in which if he succeeds, we fear that the important suggestions and proposals of the present author can be regarded only as ingenious hypothetical plans, no longer practicable. As a matter of liberal curiosity merely, we should be glad to see a work on the same subject, by this well informed author, executed on a larger scale than the present. This performance, in the form which it now bears, is marked by perspicuity and commendable simplicity ; and it exhibits (we think) internal decisive proofs of accuracy and correctness, demonstrating the writer to be a man of much observation, and of an enterprising spirit.

ART.

**ART XI. *Londinium Redivivum*:** or an ancient History and modern Description of London; compiled from Parochial records, Archives of various Foundations, the Harleian MSS. and other authentic Sources, by James Peller Malcolm; Vols. I. II. and III. 4to: 5l. 4s. od. Boards. Rivingtons, &c.

**N**OTWITHSTANDING the abundant historical and antiquarian information which writers have accumulated respecting our metropolis, it cannot be doubted that much may yet be obtained that will be acceptable. In such a pursuit, however, the danger is incurred of repeating the often-told tale, or of recording particulars which are either tiresomely dull or frivolously minute. Mr. Malcolm appears to have qualifications requisite for the work, since he is active, studious, and intelligent: 'I sought (says he) for a path, which would lead me to unknown facts; whether it is found, and if found, whether it is pursued to any purpose, my readers must decide.' Our abstract may perhaps assist in forming this estimate.

The first volume commences with an article, on the 'Increase of London;' and we shall quote some of the opening remarks:

'It would be a labour of little less difficulty, to attempt to describe the varying form of a summer cloud, than to trace from year to year the outline of London. Ever on the increase, these pages will scarcely have been perused, ere matter might be found to swell them. When this enormous mass will be completed, is beyond our powers of calculation. The fallacy of conjecture on such subjects may be proved from Sir William Petty's "Political Arithmetic, 1683," when he endeavours to demonstrate that the growth of London must stop of itself before the year 1800, at which time, he adds, the population must be 5,359,000 persons. Although the city hath been wonderfully enlarged since Sir William's time, his plan must be extended some centuries farther, before his latter prediction can be verified, supposing the increase to be in the past proportion.'

The parishes in London (proper) here brought under review are those of St. Alphage, All-Hallows in Thames-Street, All-Hallows in Lombard Street, St. Andrew Undershaft, St. Mary at Axe, annexed to the foregoing, St. Bartholomew the Great and the Less, St. Benedict, Grace-Church, St. Leonard, East-Cheap, St. Botolph, Bishopgate, and St. Bridget in the ward of Faringdon without. Several curious and entertaining anecdotes occur in their history: Sion College, and the East-India House, come under particular notice: but the Abbey, now the Collegiate church of St. Peter, Westminster, employs a great number of pages, extending from p. 87 to p. 265. Mr. Malcolm here finds a great variety of subjects to engage his own attention and attract that of his readers. He has examined every chapel, some of which are perhaps not generally known, and he is not a mere cursory observer. He passes from column to

column, from one tomb, monument, inscription, &c. to another, and furnishes his remarks; yet an attendant might be disposed to farther inquiries; and it is not easy always to follow him, without being well acquainted with the spot.—Some dispute has arisen concerning the chapels of Islip, abbot in the reign of Henry VII, and St. Erasmus\*: but Mr. Malcolm allows one to each; and whereas more ancient owners interfere, he pronounces, especially as to the former, ‘It is Islip’s, for he keeps quiet possession, surrounded by what has ludicrously been termed the ragged regiment, in other words, the battered and decayed effigies of our ancient monarchs, which it was then the custom to dress in regal ornaments, and carry to the church at their funerals.’—This antiquary rather combats those well known remarks of Mr. Addison, which were published in his *Spectator*†, and had their effect on the public mind; they have been and still are quoted in visiting the tomb of Sir Cloudesly Shovell. He agrees with that excellent man and respected critic in condemning the design, but differs in the application of his censures; and he particularly observes concerning the “long perriwig,” ‘absurd as those flowing wigs were, it is the only part of his attire that brings the date of his death within a thousand years of its time. The whole of the tomb is wretchedly executed; but I think the design would have been very good, if the effigies had been omitted.—I would have shewn him in his admiral’s uniform; meeting the element into which he sunk with fortitude, and as much resignation as the fear of death would permit the stoutest of us to feel.’—In conformity with this idea, in his account of Lord Chatham’s statue, we find him declaring—‘This figure is full of the grace and dignity of the greatest orator. He is in the dress of our times, and this contributes to bring the real character before us.’

The chapel of Henry VIIIth naturally obtains much of the notice of this writer: but it is also calculated to excite surprise, at the ignorant yet distressing anxiety, discovered by that king; at the enormous expence, and the extraordinary parade by which he was supposed to provide for the safety of his soul, when it left it’s earthly habitation. Though Mr. Malcolm is inclined to reverent attention on these occasions, he cannot avoid some lively remarks; particularly, after having recounted numerous specific instructions and appointments, he adds ‘Lest his soul might not rest in peace, although every precaution was taken by him that poor sinner could take, he

\* Who this Saint Erasmus was may with some persons be a difficult question.

† Vol. i. No. xxvi.

requested that 10,000 masses should be said in the monastery, London, and its-neighbourhood, for its repose ;—together with thousands of masses in honour of the five wounds of Christ, the five joys of our lady, the nine orders of angels, the patriarchs, the apostles, and all saints, ‘all those to be sung in a little month after his decease.’ In another place, Mr. Malcolm observes concerning this king ; ‘he left his funeral to the discretion of his executors, only charging them to avoid “dampnable pompe and outrageous superfluities.” Whether he pursued his own advice will appear from the decorations on the chapel, altars, and his tomb, exclusive of the anniversaries.—And yet, I am delighted with many of the remaining specimens of his “outrageous superfluities.”—This is very well said: a liberal and virtuous mind may survey with respectful pleasure the relics of patient ingenuity and mistaken piety, while it rejects or pities the folly and superstition which produced them.

In a list of burials, Oliver Cromwell stands distinguished, One or two of the author's remarks, attending the description, may be considered as rather too trifling, or too vulgar, for a man of erudition and liberality.—We are pleased however to see a candid acknowledgement, that ‘the building of the abbey is involved in mists too dense for the sun of antiquarian search to dissipate.’ Sulgardus, a monk, is mentioned, but his account of its origin is justly rejected as an idle tale, and it is observed ; ‘He has, indeed, according to custom, used but little ceremony with St. Peter, or the choir of heaven: for he hath pressed both into his service, in order to make the consecration of this church hallowed and sublime.’—The foundation of this structure is here fixed between the years 730 and 740: but, if we inquire who was the founder, even *Widmore* is unable to inform us. Henry III. appears to have been a renovator and a great benefactor to the building, especially when, ‘in the year 1269, he set his shoulders, together with the king of the Romans, and other great persons, to the coffin of St. Edward, in order to place it where it now rests.’ On this idle ceremony, though doubtless very magnificent and costly, Mr. Malcolm writes with brevity, but with energy and spirit; and he properly adds ; ‘In tracing such proceedings, I throw aside the absurdity of the motives, and the superstitious causes, as beneath a thought. I view them only as scenes beautiful in effect.’—For the revenue of the abbey, we are merely referred to Dr. Busby's parchment book, preserved in the museum, in which the accompts for one year are contained.

We have allowed ourselves so long to perambulate this ancient edifice, that little room is left for remarks on the remainder of the first volume. We see not much reason for inserting,



in the account of St. Bartholomew the great, an old superstitious MS. found in the British Museum, concerning one Rahere; whether he was king's minstrel, or jester, or any thing else, and also said to be founder of this church.—'The beautiful steeple of St. Bride's, in my opinion, (says Mr. Malcolm,) surpasses every other in London. Unfortunately, its situation precludes a fair sight of it from every place but that where it is seen to the greatest disadvantage, immediately under it. The exquisite proportion preserved in each story in the ascent, till it terminates in an obelisk, is a work that points out an excellent master, which Wren certainly was.' 'The church is plain without, the artist having bestowed a rich design within.'—The Fleet prison furnishes some curious remarks: it appears to have been a place of confinement of great antiquity; 'it having been mentioned in the reign of Richard the first, which was from 1189 to 1199. The name then was *Prisona de la Fleet*, which last word is known to mean a small stream of water which flowed in that direction.'

This volume is closed by a history of the *Chartreuse*, now the *Charter-House*, and many pages are employed on this not uninteresting subject. Several amusing accounts and descriptions are presented to us, with remarks that are generally judicious or amusing; so that on the whole this part of the volume will prove acceptable to the reader. No one will be surprised that the author's attention is considerably engaged by the transactions of that extraordinary man, Thomas Sutton Esq. founder of this institution; who, having acquired an immense fortune, employed it in rendering himself useful by private and public benefactions, and accomplished his great scheme of utility, by providing for effectual service after his decease: the benefit of which is now experienced. He died at Hackney in the year 1611, aged 79. For a great part of the narration, this writer is indebted to 'An historical account &c.' long since published by Philip Bearcroft, D.D. preacher at the Charter-House from 1724 to 1754.

In volumes II. and III. the same plan seems to be continued; and although there be not a few instances of repetition; much occurs that is new, entertaining, and instructive; the author's reflections also continue sprightly and useful. At times he indulges too much in a forced declamatory strain: but, in general, his manner is not unpleasing, and bears marks of originating with himself or improving on the thoughts of others. Many are the short passages and remarks, which it would be agreeable to present to our readers, and which might furnish topics of reflection and conversation: but our notice must be brief.—One passage in the second volume requires to be

be specified, because it supports and recommends a practice at least of a dubious nature, and apparently of a dangerous tendency. The observation is occasioned by the oppressions and persecutions to which popery has given rise: 'It is much to be lamented (says Mr. Malcolm) that many amiable men suffered their zeal to overcome their prudence in the bigotted reign of Queen Mary. Obstinate determined to carry her point, and possessed of ample power to persecute, she could not be prevailed on by the mild effects of argument. They should not have directly opposed her, but have temporised, and reserved their all-convincing truths for less turbulent times. But unfortunately they preached against her doctrines, and she burned them for so doing.'—What will become of truth and honesty, should such reasoning prevail; and how should we ever have attained a *reformation* from popery and tyranny, had men allowed themselves thus to trifle with truth and conscience?—Mr. Malcolm surely cannot estimate dissimulation and prevarication as incumbent duties!

Besides the parishes and parish churches which are brought under review in the second volume, the reader will be entertained and instructed by the accounts of the several inns of court, halls, bridges, the Stock Exchange, Royal Exchange, Bank of England, Doctors' Commons, Herald's College, British Museum, &c. &c. These are, indeed, subjects which have been repeatedly offered to attention; and these renewed representations cannot be defended, unless they amend and improve former relations by additions and observations, which may on the whole contribute to the gratification and satisfaction of the readers. Something of this kind, we think, the present editor has been able to effect: but it is impossible for us to institute a comparison with his various predecessors.

On opening vol. III. our attention is immediately arrested by the cathedral of St. Paul; the history of which, in addition to what is previously said of St. Faith, &c. occupies not less than 198 pages. Of this number, many are employed in detailing benefactions, donations, chantries, &c. which, though individually, and according to the rate of money at this day, they may appear inconsiderable, really accumulate to a very large sum. 'The possessions of this church, (says the author) were so numerous, it is vain to think of particularizing them all;—however it is added, 'the receipts, from every description of income amounted, many centuries past, to 1196l. 11s. 2d. *per annum*.' Prayers for the dead constituted a great part of the income. If we pity the ignorant superstition whence the practice arose, or if we censure the craft by which it was cherished, we may also justly contemplate the value of *peace of mind*,

*mind*, when we see persons so freely parting with what they most highly prize for its attainment! Several specimens of this kind are exhibited, concerning which it is said—'As Newcourt and Dugdale have extracted copiously from the archives of St. Paul relative to this part of my subject, I shall endeavour to lay before the reader *such information as they have omitted*; and which, in my opinion, is full as important as any they have given.' 'As for the tapers, brought to the church, they were usually burning; but this was a tedious method of melting them, and unproductive; the inferior officers of the church therefore conveyed them to a receptacle beneath the chapter-house, where they underwent a process more expeditious, and were sold to the best bidder.'

The former antient building appropriated to St. Paul, which was several times injured or nearly destroyed by fire, often renewed, repaired, and adorned, falls under a diligent review. It has been contended, with some earnestness, that a temple dedicated to Diana had been built on the spot, which, in 610, Ethelbert had chosen for the first christian church here erected. Our present compiler acknowledges this to be his opinion, and possibly it may be the truth. The late building appears to have been very magnificent, displaying with its steeple, spire, ball, cross, &c. much acquaintance with architecture, and ability in execution: but in the year 1666, it is well known, the devouring element, which had so often proved inimical, accomplished its ruin; or demolished it so far as to forbid all attempts for repairs. Accordingly, that noble structure, which so well fills its place, and is an ornament and honour to the whole kingdom, has been raised in its stead. Mr. Malcolm proceeds to a critical examination of this wonderful edifice, 'praising and censuring according to the best of his judgment;' and we are disposed to consider his remarks, on the whole, as pertinent and judicious. He laments the situation of this church, in which almost every spectator will join; wishing with him that some 'elevated spot' had been chosen, where they might have encompassed it with a handsome square of the best houses in London.' Two sculptors are here recorded with applause; the one, Grinling Gibbons, who seems to have been of Dutch descent, though born in London;—'There is no instance of a man, says Vertue, before Gibbons, who gave to wood the loose and airy lightness of flowers, and chained together the various productions of the elements with a free disorder, natural to each species.' Mr. Malcolm adds, 'We may with equal justice say, that no man since his decease has been able to enter into competition with the specimens left by him in St. Paul's;' and he is even styled 'an unequalled

squalled artist.' He died in Bow-street, Covent-Garden, August 3, 1721 — The other, celebrated with him, is 'Caius Gabriel Cibber, who seems (it is here observed) to have been better known through his son Colly than by his own merit: and yet I do not hesitate to say, his works on stone are fully equal to those of his son on paper. The effects of his chissel at St. Paul's are unquestionably superior to those of any other sculptor employed in decorating the church.' 'Many of the defects,' Mr. M. with justice remarks, 'that are observable in the church of St. Paul, do not belong to the architect. He certainly was obliged to submit to the pitiable restrictions of men who were utterly devoid of taste, and this the world may perceive from the beautiful engraving of Rooker, representing the *St. Paul's* of Sir Christopher Wren.'—Among the minor deficiencies in this grand and beautiful edifice, we perceive that this writer numbers the infrequency both of sculpture and of paintings. The metropolitan church is now, however, become 'a receptacle for tombs;' and we hope that care will be taken to render them really ornamental to it. Mr. Bacon's letter concerning his statues of Howard and Johnson is preserved in this volume. Possibly the author has not criticized, so much as might be wished, the sculpture here exhibited: but few, if any, will object to this admonition:—"Let no man's praise be recorded *here*, whose existence is forgotten every where else: let no *false praise* defile the purity of this place." The memorial to Captain Burgess is both commended and censured; and it is asked, 'if a man would reddon with shame and indignation at barely being asked to enter a friend's house stripped, how is it that we dare prophane the house of God with such indecent representations?' Opposite to this tomb, is another devoted to the memory of the brave Captain Faulkner; and in this writer's lively manner it is remarked, 'uniformity has been preserved almost to making this monument a *copy* of the other. Neptune supports the Hero; and Victory crowns him. It will be remembered, that this method of proceeding will save an infinite deal of what the North American Indians call *bead-work*, or what we denominate invention.' Of these monuments, the first was executed by Banks, the other by Rossi.

It is here greatly lamented that Sir Christopher Wren should not have obtained some more direct and distinguished memorial: but we differ much from our historian: the inscription on his modest and unassuming tomb is, in our opinion, elegant and abundantly expressive; '*Lector, si monumentum requiris, circumspice.*' The magnificent edifice, constructed by his skill, his ingenuity, and his labour, is a splendid *mausoleum*, far exceeding

ceiling any separate remembrancer, however costly it might be.

The pulpit-cross, or Paul's cross, as it seems to have been more generally termed, is an erection which in former days was very usual in church-yards, as appears by the remnants which in some of them are yet to be seen ; and they might, as it is here intimated, be used in offering up prayers for the spirits of the deceased. At what time it received the addition of a pulpit cannot now be discovered : but it is undoubted that from it sermons were pronounced on the Sunday morning, as also on other occasions. Yet the spot was far from being appropriated solely to purposes of a religious or moral kind : ' it has been (says this writer) the stage for essays of intrigue, political defamation, curses, and confession of crimes ; the support of preachers, whose doctrine hanged some, and burned others.'—Several instances are recorded of the different uses to which this building was applied ; and we are also told of a considerable sum which was raised for the preachers, who are said to have received 45 or 40 *s.* for a sermon, besides their entertainment at the 'Shunamite's' house, a kind of inn allotted for them 'by the appointment of the church.'

It would have been very remarkable if the *school* of St. Paul had not met with distinction in these volumes : but we have not to complain of any such omission. This institution appears to have existed as early as the days of Henry I. : but Dean Colet, who was born A. D. 1466, and died A. D. 1519, was the man who raised it to the celebrity which it has long acquired, and still maintains. He was the intimate friend of Erasmus ; a circumstance which may lead us to infer that he was also the friend of truth and liberty ; as indeed appears from the few following lines in one of his letters to the learned foreigner, whom, writing of their controversies on theological subjects, he thus addresses ; "When, like two flints, we are striking one another, if any spark of light flies out, let us eagerly catch at it ; we seek not for our own opinion, but for the truth which, in this mutual conflict, may perhaps be extorted, as fire out of steel."

We have dwelt so long on this cathedral and its appendages, that all other articles must be excluded. Clerkenwell, Cripplegate, with a number of churches, parishes halls, hospitals, &c., are duly visited by Mr. Malcolm. From the register of marriages in the church of St. Giles, we are furnished with this memorandum!—'1620. Aug. 22. Oliver Cromwell and Elizabeth Boucher,' which is attended by a print of each, rather singular in its kind ; and to this record is added a very brief history of that extraordinary man, which, as a proof of candour, is drawn

from both enemies and friends.—In conclusion, we have only to observe that these volumes are, on the whole, productive of amusement and information; to which a pleasant addition is made by the numerous plates with which they are accompanied.

ART. XII. *Conversations introducing Poetry*: chiefly on Subjects of Natural History. For the Use of Children and young Persons. By Charlotte Smith. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Johnson, 1804.

GENUINE talents, and amiable dispositions; cannot be more honourably employed than in contributing to perpetuate their own benign influence from one generation to another. Among the numerous writers of reputation, who have devoted part of their leisure to the entertainment and instruction of the rising race, we are pleased to find the name of Mrs. Smith; who, within the compass of two small volumes, has contrived to convey, in agreeable language, several striking facts and pertinent remarks. The principal subjects of conversation are pleasingly blended with collateral incidents, and important moral truths.

Of the little poetical epistles, a few are truly beautiful, and all rise above mediocrity. 'There are seven pieces,' says Mrs. Smith, 'not my own, some of them a little altered, to answer my first purpose of teaching a child to repeat them; and five of my own reprinted. Of the remainder, though the relation to whom I am obliged, objected to my distinguishing them by any acknowledgement, it is necessary to say that where my interlocutors *praise* any poem, the whole or the greater part of it is *hers*.'

We shall exhibit a short specimen or two, in prose and verse.

The fourth conversation begins thus:

'Mrs. Talbot. The day opens propitiously for our meeting the dear friends we expect. I never saw the sun rise with more beauty, or promising finer weather.

'George. In half an hour, Mother, we shall be on our way; and in two hours we shall meet them, shall we not?

'Mrs. Talbot. I hope so; and as you know we were talking of omens yesterday, I will consider it as a favourable prognostic to the pursuit of our little studies in natural history, that I this morning found in my window one of those beautiful butterflies called the Admirable; and sometimes the Colonel—a fly which is rarely found in the house, though others, such as the Nettle Tortoise-shell, frequently are. In an impromptu I addressed my captive, and then gave him his freedom.

'Emily. It is that large black butterfly, with bright scarlet and white spots, one of which I saw in the garden yesterday.

'Mrs.

' Mrs. Talbot. The same.—But perhaps I have not been altogether correct in my poetical history, inasmuch as I have described the butterfly as emerging from the retreat it had chosen during the cold months; but it is more probable that the individual insect in question has been produced this Summer. For the progress of this species I understand to be, that a few that have passed the inclement season in the chrysalis state, are seen on the wing early in May; soon after which the female lays her eggs singly on the leaves of nettles. The caterpillar, immediately on being hatched, sews the leaf on which it finds itself round it like a case; the effect of wonderful instinct, to preserve itself from a particular species of fly called the ichneumon, which otherwise would destroy it, by depositing its eggs in the soft body of the caterpillar. But, as the caterpillar must have food as well as shelter, it feeds on the tender part of this covering, till the leaf becomes in too ruinous a state to be longer inhabited; then crawling to another, it again wraps itself up; and this happens till it is nearly full grown, and so much increased in size, that one leaf will not serve it both for food and raiment. It therefore becomes more ambitious, and reaching the top of the nettle, connects several leaves together to make its house and supply its appetite; till being at length full grown, it suspends itself from a leaf, and puts on the armour that nature directs it to assume before its last and complete state of existence, which happens in sixteen or twenty days, according to the temperature of the air. Then the ugly deformed caterpillar is metamorphosed into the beautiful butterfly, one of which by some singular chance I found to-day.

' TO A BUTTERFLY IN A WINDOW.

- ' Escaped thy place of wintry rest,  
And in the brightest colours dress,  
Thy new-born wings prepared for flight,  
Ah! do not, Butterfly, in vain  
Thus flutter on the crystal pane,  
But go! and soar to life and light.
- ' High on the buoyant Summer gale  
Thro' cloudless ether thou may'st sail,  
Or rest among the fairest flowers;  
To meet thy winnowing friends may'st speed,  
Or at thy choice luxurious feed  
In woodlands wild, or garden bowers.
- ' Beneath some leaf of ample shade  
Thy pearly eggs shall then be laid,  
Small rudiments of many a fly;  
While thou, thy frail existence past,  
Shalt shudder in the chilly blast,  
And fold thy painted wings and die!
- ' Soon fleets thy transient life away;  
Yet short as is thy vital day,

Like

Like flowers that form thy fragrant food ;  
Thou, poor Ephemeron, shalt have filled  
The little space thy Maker willed,  
And all thou know'st of life be good.'

The *Robin's Petition* is also worthy of quotation :

' THE ROBIN'S PETITION.

- " A suppliant to your window comes,  
Who trusts your faith and fears no guile,  
He claims admittance for your crumbs,  
And reads his passport in your smile.
- " For cold and cheerless is the day,  
And he has sought the hedges round ;  
No berry hangs upon the spray,  
Nor worm nor ant-egg can be found.
- " Secure his suit will be prefer'd,  
No fears his slender feet deter ;  
For sacred is the household bird  
That wears the scarlet stomacher."
- ' Lucy the prayer assenting heard,  
The feather'd suppliant flew to her,  
And fondly cherish'd was the bird,  
That wears the scarlet stomacher.
- ' Embolden'd then, he'd fearless perch  
Her netting or her work among,  
For crumbs among her drawings search,  
And add his music to her song ;
- ' And warbling on her snowy arm,  
Or half entangled in her hair,  
Seemed conscious of the double charm  
Of freedom, and protection there.
- ' A graver moralist, who used  
From all some lesson to infer,  
Thus said, as on the bird she mused,  
Pluming his scarlet stomacher—
- " Where are his gay companions now,  
Who sung so merrily in Spring ?  
Some shivering on the leafless bough,  
With ruffled plume, and drooping wing.
- " Some in the hollow of a cave,  
Consign'd to temporary death ;  
And some beneath the sluggish wave  
Await reviving nature's breath.
- " The migrant tribes are fled away,  
To skies where insect myriads swarm,  
They vanish with the Summer day,  
Nor bide the bitter northern storm.



" But still is *this* sweet minstrel heard,  
While lours December dark and drear,  
The social, chearful, household bird,  
That wears the scarlet stomacher.

" And thus in life's propitious hour,  
Approving flatterers round us sport,  
But if the faithless prospect lour,  
They the more happy fly to court.

" Then let us to the selfish herd  
Of fortune's parasites prefer,  
The friend like this, our Winter bird,  
That wears the scarlet stomacher."

As we trust that this publication will survive a first edition, we shall beg leave to remark that the style sometimes soars above the comprehension of the young; that it is rather too uniformly serious; and that it is sometimes deficient in interest. Little inaccuracies occur more frequently than we could have supposed. Besides the errors of the press which are noted at the end, we find *papillone*, *igneus fatuus*, *Saloop*, *Clemati*, *Papilis*, *Smygdalus* (for *amygdalus*) *columbo*, (for *columba*,) *Chelidonium*, (for *chelidonium*,) *tricolor*, *convolvulus*, *Soldinella*, *mephilus*, *pectum*, (for *pecten*,) *larie* (for *larix*,) *rober* (for *robur*,) &c. In the course of the same sentence, the singular sometimes glides into the plural. Thus, 'It is almost impossible for one who has always lived in splendid houses, moved from place to place in convenient carriages, and been constantly pampered with delicacies, till *their* appetites are even jaded, to put *themselves*' &c.—'of which the machinery *constitute* a considerable part.'—'Many an unhappy young person *date*,' &c.—*Brows* and *sberus*, *bue* and *grow*, are indefensible rhymes.—In her enumeration of the genera of sea plants, the fair author omits *ulva*, though it is mentioned in other parts of the performance. We have likewise to acquaint her that opium is prepared from the white poppy; and that the Hottentots and Caffres are neither the same people, nor a negroe-race.—More sprightliness and more correctness, in short, are wanting to impart to these volumes all the usefulness which may be derived from such performances: but Mrs. Smith has done much, and will, we hope, do more.

ART. XIII. *Lepidoptera Britannica; sistens digestionem novam Insectorum Lepidopterorum quæ in Magna Britannia reperiuntur, larvarum pabulo, temporeque pascendi; expansione alarum; mensibusque volandi; synonymis atque locis observationibusque variis, Autore A. H. Haworth, Lin. Soc. Londini Socio, atque Prodromi Lepidopterorum Britannicorum Genusque ad Mesembryanthemum observationum autore. Adjunguntur Dissertationes variae ad Historiam Naturalem spectantes* 8vo. 15s. Boards. Murray.

THE reader will find, in the 39th volume of our New Series, p. 212. a slight notice of the *Prodromus Lepidopterorum Britannicorum* of this author; and we then also announced a more elaborate extension of the same work. Mr. Haworth has now executed the first part of his enlarged design, in a manner which unites technical accuracy with much useful and entertaining information. Indeed, we regard the present exposition of Lepidopterous Insects as the only British publication of the kind which can be consulted with advantage. The multiplicity and minuteness of the author's observations can be duly appreciated by the entomologist alone: but ordinary readers may form some conception of the extent of his labours, of his diligence, and of his enthusiasm, from the perusal of his preface:

'Many years,' says he, 'have now elapsed since, with enthusiastic pleasure, I began to collect, arrange, and describe the natural productions of this our fertile and happy island; but more especially its *Birds, Insects, and Vegetables*.

'For these purposes I have diligently examined many parts of England personally, and usually on foot and alone; but sometimes accompanied by pedestrian friends of congenial sentiments and taste. Industrious we have sought, and never once in vain, a great variety of woods and lawns, hills and vales, marshes and fens; one summer only, travelling in various journeys, not fewer than a thousand miles; in spite of heat and cold, wet and drought, and various other concomitant impediments.—

'But the counties I have more particularly, and more successfully, entomologized in, are, Middlesex, Sussex, Essex, Surrey, Kent, and the beautiful Isle of Thanet; Oxfordshire, Cambridgeshire, Lincolnshire, Westmoreland, and the several ridings of the great county of York. And lastly, although not least in my estimation, (because it is my native one), the little county of the town of Kingston-upon-Hull.

'From the first of my collecting insects, I have kept a regular *Aurilian Journal* of the times and places in which I beheld any of the British *Lepidoptera* alive, whether in the *Larva* (Caterpillar), *Puppa* (Chrysalis) or *Imago* (the winged or perfect state); never discarding from my memory the Linnæan maxim, "*Nulla dies sine linea*."

We likewise learn that Mr. Haworth has absolutely beheld alive all the species which he describes, except the few whose names in the margin are marked with an asterisk.

The author's distribution of Linné's *Phalena* into nine distinct genera, by characters taken from the structure of the antennæ, aided by others drawn from the larvæ, is the result of mature consideration, and of a diligent inspection of seventy cabinets and collections; including the *Aurelian*, which contains more British Lepidoptera than any in this country. The Linnéan characters, it is well known, are chiefly derived from the position of the wings of the living insect, when at rest; and, though we admit that many advantages result from the present innovations, we cannot but regret that the important circumstance, on which the former arrangement is founded, should be overlooked in the detailed descriptions.

Mr. Haworth's plan includes twelve Genera, namely, *Papilio*, *Sphinx*, *Zygana*, *Bombyx*, *Noctua*, *Hepialus*, *Geometra*, *Phalena*, *Pyralis*, *Tortrix*, *Tinea*, and *Alucita*. Of these, only the first four are discussed in this part of the publication.

1. The distribution of *Papilio* remains nearly the same as in the last edition of the *Systema Naturæ*; except that the secondary divisions of *Danai*, *Nymphales*, and *Plebei*, are raised to primary, and the new family of *Parnessii* is substituted for that of *Heliconii*. Seventy-two species are described; and two are quoted from Petiver, and nine from Turton, but which have not been observed by the author, either in a living or preserved state.

2. The two primary divisions of *Sphinx* are, *Legitimæ*, or Hawk-moths, and *Sesia*, or Humming-birds and Cleanwings. The first is subdivided into *Integrales*, or intire-winged, and *Dentales*, or dentated; the second, into *Tectæ*, or Humming-birds, and *Denudata*, or Cleanwings.—The species described are twenty-eight.

3. *Zygana* is a new genus formed from Linné's third family of Sphinges, and has for characters, 'ANTENNÆ medio vel potius versus apicem valde incrassata, apice subulata.—ALÆ tectæ squamis, opacæ.—ABDOMEN uniformis cylindraceum crassum, apice vix barbatus.—LARVA obesa.'—It includes four species.

4. *Bombyx*, which comprizes both *Attacus* and *Bombyx* of the *Syst. Nat.*, is split into seven principal divisions, viz. *Maximi*, *Dentigeri*, *Cinerei*, *Albi*, *Tristigmatiferi*, *Bistigmatiferi*, and *Eristigmatiferi*.—The total of species described is ninety-eight; not including nine which are mentioned by Turton as natives of Britain, and three noticed by Martyn, in his *Aurelian's Vade Mécum*.

For the sake of brevity, we have overlooked the subordinate sectional divisions, many of which are new, and all constructed with singular regard to accuracy. The Synonyms are copious and satisfactory. 'Throughout the following pages,' says our learned entomologist, 'I have in every instance, carefully, and in most cases repeatedly examined the synonyms with my own eyes; copying none from any one; and rejecting from every one, Linnaeus himself not excepted, such as I conceived to be inaccurate or objectionable.'

The specific and detailed descriptions are entirely new-wrought, and from British specimens, whenever they were to be had. Descriptions of the *Larva*, and *Pupa*, principally drawn from the *Entomologia Systematica* of Fabricius, have been likewise introduced with singular propriety.

As an interesting article, we select the account of *Bombyx Cossus*:

'B. M. (The Goat) *Alis cinereis fuscis nebulosis, atro striatis; thorace exalbido fascia postica atra.*

*Linne Flun. Succ* 1114.—*Lin. Syst. Nat. tom. 2. p. 827. 63.*—*Gmel. Syst. Nat. 2431.*—*Fab. Ent. Syst. 3. 1. 1. Cossus ligniperda.*—*Fab. Syst. Ent. 2. 569. 48.*—*Fab. Mant. Ins. 2. 116. 83.*—*Fab. Spec. Ins. 2. 182. 65.*—*Villars Ent. 2. 168. 95.*—*Ent. Par. 258.*—*Müll. Zool. Dan. 1372.*—*Berk. Outl. 1. 138. 27.*—*Faun. Ingr. 692. Cossus ligniperda.*—*Scop. Carn. 500.*—*Donov. Br. Ins. 114.*—*Harris Aur. t. 23.*—*Wilks, pl. 31.*—*Theologie des Insectes, fig. 17. 22.*—*Merian Eruc. pars 3. pl. 36.*—*Roes. Ins. cl. 2. 18.*—*Seba Thes. 4. 49. C. et 4. 51. M.*—*Raj. Ins. 150. 2.*—*Esper Schmet. 3. t. 61.*—*Albin's Ins. 35.*—*Schaf. Icon. 41. 1. 2.*—*Pet. Gaz. 51. 9.*—*Goed. Ins. 2. pl. 33.*—*List. Goed. fig. 39.*—*Mouf. Ins. 106. f. 1.*

'HABITAT paulo infrequens *Larva* in Ligno putrescente, vel subinde in Radicibus Plantarum; per tres annos vivat et crescit. *Imago* f. Junii Truncis.

'EXPANSIO alarum M. 3 unc. 3 lin. F. 3 unc. 7 lin.

'DESCRIPTION. *Larva* maxima subpilosa dorso sanguineo, subtus lutescente, capite anoque atris, stigmatibus utroque 8 fuscis.

"Romanis in hoc luxuria esse cepit, prægrandesque roborum vermes delicatioris sunt in cibo, Cossos vocant, atque etiam farina saginati: hi quoque altisili fiunt." *Villars, l. c. ex Plin. xvii. 24.*

'PUPA læviter folliculata brunnea, incisuris ciliatis.

'IMAGO. Thorax fuscus antice albo, postice albicante, fascia angulata nigra. Abdomen percrassum fuscum incisuris albo marginatis. *Ala antice* cinereo fuscoque nebulosæ strigis numerosis transversis fuscis, tribusque aliquo majoribus versus marginem posticum atris. *Ala postica* magis cinereæ, minus striatæ. *Femina* mari simillima, at paulo major, antennæque minus pectinatæ seu setacæ.

'OBS. The larger moths are very tenacious of life, and difficult to kill without spoiling them: the usual way of compressing the *thorax* is not sufficient: they will live several days after the most severe

pressure has been given there ; to the great uneasiness of any humane Aurelian. The methods of suffocation by tobacco or sulphur are equally inefficacious, unless continued for a greater number of hours than is proper for the intended preservation of the specimens. Another mode now in practice is better ; and however fraught with cruelty it may appear to the inexperienced collector, is the greatest piece of *comparative mercy* that can, in this case, be administered. When the larger Moths must be killed ; destroy them at once, by the insertion of a strong red-hot needle into their thickest parts, beginning at the front of the thorax. If this is properly done, instead of *lingering through several days, they are dead in a moment.* It appears to me, however, that insects being animals of cold and sluggish juices, are not near so susceptible of the sensation we call pain, as those which enjoy a warmer temperature of body, and a swifter circulation of fluids. To the philosophic mind it is self-evident that they have not such acute organs of feeling pain, as other animals of a similar size, whose juices are endowed with a quicker motion, and possess a constant, regular, and genial warmth ; such as young mice, or the naked young of small birds : if any of these have the misfortune to lose their heads or limbs from force, speedy death is the certain consequence : but insects, under similar circumstances, it is well known, are capable of surviving a considerable time. A forcible instance of this kind once occurred to my tutor in Entomology. He had a Goat-moth (*Cossus*) whose head happened to be quite eaten off by some mouse, notwithstanding which it lived several days in a decapitated state, without appearing less lively for it, and was at length killed by other means.

‘ Indeed, indeed, I cannot think that

—“ The poor Beetle which we tread upon,  
In corporal sufferance feels a pang as great  
As when a giant dies.”

‘ Nor can it be regretted that I differ from our great poet on this particular point, because the difference may ease the humane Entomologist of many a rising qualm.

‘ If insects were in reality possessed of the degrees of feeling pain, that have been erroneously attributed to them, they would never survive the loss of limbs forcibly torn off, as often happens to fighting Crabs, fighting Spiders, and *Tipulæ* self extricated from children’s hands, or spider’s webs, with the dear-bought ransom of their joints. Neither would common Flies live long without their heads, wings, or other parts ; or Coleopterous Insects just escaped from the perforation of an Aurelian’s pin, attempt to copulate with their mates :—yet all these things I have myself been an eye-witness to their doing. These facts, and these remarks, are surely capable of removing the numerous charges of cruelty, which have hitherto attached to the Collector of Insects. The cruelty daily practised by our London fishmongers is surely as great, in crimping cod-fish (which can only be done while they are alive,) and in keeping up the miserable remains of life in all other fish as long as possible after they are caught, by reiterated waterings upon their leaden stalls, from the fine rose-end of a garden watering-pot. Eels, carp, and flounders are kept tolerably vigorous a day

a day or two in this manner, out of their proper element. However, as fish like insects, are animals of cold blood, it is very probable their susceptibility of feeling pain is much more obtuse than is generally supposed. It is indeed far from improbable that the feeling of pain in all living creatures, is in a ratio agreeing with the heat and velocity of their circulating fluids; those of course being the most acute, which possess the warmest and quickest flow. On this principle it becomes easy to explain why an inflamed wound, in any animal, occasions more pain than one that is not inflamed. The sum of pain, and the degree of inflammation, increase and decrease in equal ratios. The wounds of fish and insects inflame but little if at all.

‘Obs. 2. *Cossus* is one of the few species of *Lepidopterous Insects*, which possess properties injurious to mankind during the Larva state. They do considerable damage to young willow trees, by boring into their trunks in various directions, and feeding upon the wood and pith; often weakening the tree so much as to cause its easy overthrow from the first storm that attacks it afterwards (*vide Curtis in Linn. Tr. vol. 1. p. 86.*). Probably the best mode of preventing this mischief would be to search for, and destroy the sluggish females, at the end of June, which from their large size would be readily found sticking upon the trees near the infected parts. The Larvæ of *Pyrinus*, and those of several small *Sphinger*, bore into the pith of various trees, in a similar manner: but their inferior sizes, and rare occurrence, render them objects of little consequence in an æconomical point of view. But the Larvæ of several internal feeding *Cerambyces* make great havoc. *Vide Kirby on Cerambyx violaceus in Linn. Tr. vol. 5. p. 246, &c.*’

If the non-descript *Lepidoptera*, contained in this valuable work, should fall short of the expectations of the curious, let it not be forgotten that the size and beauty of such insects have long rendered them objects of general search, and that perhaps not many remain to be discovered.—It is intended that the complete work should be accompanied by a glossary of entomological terms, appropriate figures, and a table of colours. The author, moreover, generously pledges himself to give up his very extensive cabinet to the Aurelian Society, without fee or reward, as soon as the living members of that body shall amount to twenty.

It is now time that we glance at the additional matters contained in the present volume.

The first Dissertation is intitled, ‘A new arrangement of the Genus *Muscubryanthemum*; containing a full account of all the species hitherto discovered, with complete descriptions of such of them as have not been described before; also, their places of growth, duration, and times of flowering.’ This may be considered as a very extended supplement to the author’s observations on the same subject, which were published about twelve years ago. We could have wished that the two essays had

been thrown into a regular form, and presented a consistent view of such a numerous and interesting genus. Only forty-five species were known to the great Swedish naturalist. *Willdenow* enumerates eighty-six: but Mr. Haworth, who has long cultivated the genus with peculiar fondness, now discriminates not fewer than two hundred and eleven species. 'With infinite difficult and unwearied perseverance,' says he, 'I have collected together in a living state, above one hundred and sixty species and many varieties, a number not only calculated to surprise both the Botanist and Horticulturist, but to create a disbelief of their reality and existence; if it was not in my power to exhibit, at any time, the originals themselves in a living state; and thereby effectually remove, from the mind of every sceptical naturalist, all doubts that can possibly be entertained on that head.'

The observations which are annexed to the descriptions are mostly of a critical nature: but occasionally they assume a more interesting and physiological cast. Thus, under *Mesembryanthemum floribundum*, we find the following:

'The mature and exsiccated capsules of many, and probably of all *Mesembryanthema*, but of this species in particular, possess in a very lively manner, the properties of an Hygrometer. In showery weather in autumn, I have seen them expand, and contract themselves again several times in the course of a day. When expanded, they have a pretty, but very unusual appearance; and resemble considerably the flowers of a *Stapelia*; but their segments are more obtuse. If the dried capsules are well moistened with water, or any other fluid of equal tenuity, they will unfold themselves in the course of a very few minutes; and when dried again, they will spontaneously close up.

'In every stage of this extraordinary occurrence, I behold and contemplate the wise contrivances of an omnipresent CREATOR. These humble vegetables are hereby enabled to sow their seeds, at that moment of time which is unquestionably the most proper for them; that is, when the sandy deserts of their nativity are moistened with the seasonable blessings of rain, which not only assists in expelling the seeds from their expanded lodgements, but absolutely imbeds them in a soil prepared for their reception.'

The second Dissertation contains a botanical description of the Genus *Tetragonia*. According to the present arrangement, it consists of nine species, viz. *expansa*, *hirsuta*, *crystallina*, *fruticosa*, *decumbens*, *tetrapteris*, *spicata*, *herbacea*, and *echinata*. *Tetrapteris* is thus the only addition to those already noticed by *Thunberg* and *Willdenow*. It corresponds to *Tetragonia a* of the *Hortus Cliffortianus*.

Dissertation III. relates to the characters, descriptions, habitations, and synonyms of the known species of *Portulaca*; which,

which, according to Mr. Haworth, amount to nineteen.—The fourth presents a new arrangement of all the species of *Saxifraga* which are cultivated in British gardens. This is obviously one of the author's favourite subjects; and he treats it with much ability and skill. Of the forty-nine species which are here discussed, twenty six are natives of this country.

Dissertation V. is occupied with descriptions of twenty-four new species of exotic plants, comprising three sorts of *Crassula*, one of *Ornithogalum*, four of *Narcissus*, one of *Cotyledon*, three of *Oxalis*, four of *Euphorbia*, one of *Sempervivum*, six of *Cactus*, and one of *Cacalia*.—The sixth and last of these dissertations is devoted to a few minute strictures on some of the technical terms of Botany.

We look forwards with pleasing expectation to the appearance of the second part of Mr. Haworth's *Lepidoptera*, and to the sequel of his Dissertations. The latter, it is hinted, will probably include '*Aves Britannica; seu Synopsis Avium Britannicarum*, with Remarks,—*Reptilia Britannica*, with Remarks,—An Account of the Genus *Crassula*, of the Genus *Euphorbia*, of the Genus *Cactus*; —and other pieces.'

The style of the present publication is generally unexceptionable: but we have occasionally remarked something like an unnecessary display of learned phraseology, and a too frequent recurrence of parentheses. The blending of Latin descriptions with English observations, though countenanced by some respectable authorities, betrays a disregard of unity in the execution which we cannot commend. Even the observations are sometimes communicated in English and sometimes in Latin. These trivial blemishes, however, are greatly counterbalanced by the sterling merits of unwearyed industry, acute research, and the liberal devotion of time, talents, and fortune to the scientific contemplation of the productions of Nature.



ART. XIV. *Law Report. Court of King's Bench, Ireland.* Arguments of Counsel, and Opinions of the Judges, in the Case of the King v. Mr. Justice Johnson. 8vo. pp. 110. 4s. 6d. sewed. Dublin. 1805.

ART. XV. *A full and faithful Report of the Proceedings in His Majesty's Court of Exchequer in Ireland*, in the Case of the Honorable Mr. Justice Johnson, containing the Arguments of Counsel, and the Opinions delivered from the Bench, as taken from original Documents; with an Appendix, comprising the Act of the 44th of George III. c. 92: the Writ of Habeas Corpus, &c. The whole carefully revised and corrected by John Swift Emerson, Solicitor to Mr. Justice Johnson. 8vo. pp. 218. 4s. 6d. sewed. Printed at Dublin, London re-printed for Stockdale. 1805.

By the common law of England, crimes are local, and the jurisdictions in which they are tried are also local. Until as recent a period as the late reign, our criminal code was so imperfect that it could not bring to punishment an offender committing a crime in one county, and escaping to another previously to arrest. This inconvenience was removed by statutes 23 and 24 of Geo. II.; what these laws effected as between county and county in England, the 13th Geo. III. accomplished between England and Scotland; and the object of the 44th Geo. III. c. 92, was to attain the same end with regard to Ireland. The course, in all these statutes, is for a warrant to be issued in the jurisdiction in which the offence has been committed, and to have it backed by a person having authority to grant warrants in the jurisdiction in which the offender is found.

On a suspicion of his being the author of a libel published in London, the Honorable Robert Johnson, one of the Justices of the Common Pleas of Ireland, was arrested under a warrant of Lord Ellenborough, backed by a Magistrate of the County of Dublin, where the learned Judge resided. In pursuance of a writ of Habeas Corpus sued out by Mr. Justice Johnson, the validity of his arrest came under the consideration of the Court of King's Bench of Ireland, and the question was whether the act of the 44th. of the king authorized the arrest. The proceedings in the court on that occasion form the contents of the first of these pamphlets.

Mr. Justice Johnson's Counsel contended that, in order to render a person amenable under the 44th. of the king, there must be an escape by him from the jurisdiction in which the offence had been committed. Now, it was sworn by the Defendant that he was not in England at the time of the alleged offence being committed, that he had not been there for some time before, had he been in that country ever since. The offence was

laid

laid as having been committed in London in 1803, and Mr. J. Johnson had not been in that capital since 1802. As there is no provision in the act to enable the magistrate backing the warrant to take bail, the learned Judge's counsel hence inferred that the statute did not extend to bailable offences; and that therefore their client, being charged with an offence of that order, did not come within the meaning of the act. By the Habeas Corpus Act, moreover, no subject of England can be removed against his will into either Ireland or Scotland under most heavy penalties, except in the case of persons charged with having committed capital offences in either of those countries; and the counsel of Mr. Justice Johnson maintained, that the extension of the new law to cases of misdemeanour would be to repeal the most beneficial statute in the British code by a side wind: which could never be supposed to have been intended by the legislature.

It was argued by the Counsel for the Crown, that the construction put on the statute by the other side would have the effect of rendering the act wholly inoperative, as before its enactment persons charged with the higher crimes were amenable; and that it was sufficient to bring the case within the statute, that the Defendant was charged with an offence committed in England, and that he was at the time of the arrest resident in Ireland.

One of the judges of the Court being one of the persons whom the libel attacked, he was absent; of the other three, two, including the Chief Justice, thought that the arrest was valid: while one, Mr. Justice Day, was of opinion that the Defendant ought to be set at liberty. The last learned Judge held that the statute extended to bailable as well as non-bailable cases: but he conceived that, in order to bring an offender under its operation, he must have been within the jurisdiction and have escaped from it. The escape, in his judgment, warranted the non-allowance of bail in the jurisdiction to which the offender had fled. He also denied that on his construction there would be any failure of justice, because Judge Johnson might be tried in Ireland. The Counsel for the Defendant had laid stress on the commission of the offence having preceded the passing of the act, and urged that the arrest was a proceeding on an *ex post facto* law; and Mr. Justice Day observed that *his* construction steered clear of this imputation.—Erasmus, speaking of a certain heretical doctrine says that he would have given it his assent, *si sic voluisset ecclesia*; in like manner, we are free to declare that we should have been fully satisfied with the conclusions of Mr. Justice Day, *si sic voluisset curia*.

Mr. Justice Johnson also sued a writ of Habeas Corpus out of the court of Exchequer, in consequence of which the same question

question came to be discussed there ; as reported in the second of these pamphlets. Three out of four of the Judges held the arrest to be valid. Mr. Baron Smith followed very much in the same course with that which his brother Day had taken in the King's Bench ; and the Baron's speech is singularly able and perspicuous.—It cannot be denied that, on the construction put on the statute by these learned Judges, it is most consistent with itself, best harmonizes with the spirit and maxims of our jurisprudence, and the least interferes with the most important provisions of the Habeas Corpus Act.

The proceedings here detailed must be regarded as of very great importance, and as requiring the attention of all who take a part in our public affairs. Very serious and manifold inconveniences may arise from measures which may be grounded on the statute as construed by the Irish Courts.

This cause has since been decided on a trial at bar in the Court of King's Bench, London ; and Judge Johnson was found guilty of the crime laid in the indictment: viz. of having written and published two letters in one of the London Weekly Newspapers, containing a libel against his Majesty's Government in that part of the United Kingdom called Ireland ; as appears by the next article.

ART. XVI. *Report of the Trial at Bar of the Hon. Mr. Justice Johnson*, one of the Justices of his Majesty's Court of Common Pleas in Ireland, for a Libel. In the Court of King's Bench, the 23d of November, 1805. Taken in short-hand by T. Jenkins and G. Farquharson. 8vo. pp. 120. 2s. 6d. Butterworth. 1806.

THE extraordinary, or at least the unusual part of this case is confined to the apparatus employed in the scenes which preceded the denouement here presented to us. It is with reference to the matters which were preliminary to the trial, that doubts and perplexities may arise ; it is the antecedent history, and not the final event, which invites criticism, and occasions cool and considerate men to pause and reflect. We speak of persons who take large views of things ; and who are less eager that punishment should in every instance reach the offence, than that the great principles which constitute the privileges, or rather the prerogatives of a British subject, (if we may use the expression,) should be duly respected and sanctified. In this remark, we refer to the circumstance of some of the enactments, which operated in the suit, being posterior to the commission of the offence ; and to the construction of a clause in one of them, on which it was adjudged that the arrest of Mr. Justice Johnson was valid. We are informed that the law in question is not *ex post facto*, because it relates to

to process, and not to the substance of the offence: but we own that, to our plain understandings, the distinction is more obvious than the soundness of the conclusion founded on it; and we are of opinion that it is laudable to feel anxiety that those principles on which depend our individual security, and our consequent national prosperity, should not in the least be violated or disregarded; that it is commendable to harbour extreme jealousy of any steps that should indirectly invade their authority, or enfeeble their influence. Any occasional failure of justice is not to be put in comparison with the preservation, in their full vigour and integrity, of those fundamental rules on which our civil liberty stands firm and unshaken.

The trial itself, as may be expected in the instance of every solemn procedure in our high courts, bears the stamp of the ability and impartiality of the bench, and of the integrity of the jurors.

If the witnesses for the defendant are more numerous by one than those which were called for the prosecution, it will be recollected that *testes ponderantur non numerantur*; and that two of the former rendered themselves open to the forcible observations made by the court on their conduct in giving their testimony. The experiments, also, in which the defendant and his friends had been concerned previously to the hearing of the cause, must have operated in reducing the weight of the evidence on the same side; since the effect attempted in them was nothing short of blotting from our books one entire head of evidence, of most extensive application in both criminal and civil proceedings. The same experiments also exposed to view a preparation with regard to the witnesses, of which tribunals must ever entertain extreme jealousy; and which must materially lower the value of the testimony of persons so circumstanced. Had the witnesses for the defence merely negatived the hand-writing, and gone no farther, the province which the jury had to discharge would have been rendered far more difficult. Taking into our view all the circumstances, not only did the verdict coincide with the moral persuasion of every man, and not only was it supported by clear legal evidence, but it was the only verdict which an enlightened jury, under the able direction which it received, could have returned: there was nothing like an equilibrium in the case.

We cannot entertain a doubt that, whenever the clause on which the Irish courts held the arrest of Judge Johnson to be valid, comes to be brought into action on this side of the water, the construction of it will undergo farther discussion before our own supreme tribunals. It is a matter of the very highest consequence.

Great

Great pains seem to have been taken to render the present report correct; and, as far as we can judge, they have been attended with success. It is not free, however, from several verbal mistakes, which materially affect the sense: thus, in page 61. *provocation* is put for *protection*; p. 66. *frequent* for *pregnant*; p. 67. *against* for *as well*; and several others, which we could point out.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1806.

### TRAVELS.

Art. 17. *Travels in Trinidad*, during the Months of February, March, and April 1803, in a Series of Letters, addressed to a Member of the Imperial Parliament of Great Britain. Illustrated with a Map of the Island. By Pierre F. M<sup>c</sup>Callum. 8vo. pp. 360. 8s 6d. Boards. Sold by all Booksellers. 1805.

THIS volume relates wholly to the unfortunate disputes which took place at Trinidad, between the British Commissioners in that island, which have become the subject of judicial investigation at home, and into which we are not competent to enter. An *ardent spirit* seems to have actuated Mr. M<sup>c</sup>Callum in his conduct, and in his composition; which, though literary excisemen, we are not qualified to gauge. He asserts its purity, but there may be some doubts whether it be not above proof.

### POETRY.

Art. 18. *Trafalgar; or Nelson's last Triumph*. A Poem. By the Honourable Martin Bladen Hawke. 4to. 2s. Diddier and Tehbett.

Nelson is "prais'd, wept, and *honoured*," in general, by the Muse of Mr. Hawke: but from this commendation we must except the following lines:

'Is there a heart among ye has not bled?  
 "For England mourns her mighty Nelson dead!"  
 Nor wish'd to fall'n France her fleet again,  
 While we preserv'd the Hero and the *Man*.'

Other passages, however, display the writer's muse to more advantage; and we copy with pleasure those couplets which include an enumeration of the gallant Admiral's most splendid victories:

'When the proud Dane, from Copenhagen's tow'r,  
 Flush'd with false triumph, claim'd the doubtful hour,  
 Thy gen'rous spirit prov'd with eager care,  
 That British Seamen *conquer but to spare*.  
 Nor less thy fame in wild Calabria's Bay,  
 Made the fierce lion quit his destin'd prey,  
 And Rome's proud Citadel submissive own  
 That British prowess sav'd a Cæsar's throne.

'Deep

' Deep had we mourn'd Destruction's powerful sway,  
 That urg'd o'er Austria's plains her fatal way.  
 Where the dark Danube rolls his rapid wave,  
 Full many a warrior found an early grave,  
 And Europe's fate appear'd already o'er,  
 When Vict'ry glesm'd on fam'd TRAFALGAR's shore.  
 Since Mantinea's fatal day was won  
 By Theban prowess and Polymnio's son,  
 Ne'er has the ocean, or the carnag'd plain,  
 View'd such a combat—such a Hero slain !  
 Tho' the keen bayonet's compulsive pow'rs  
 Force trembling conscripts from Liguria's bow'rs,  
 Still France shall mourn, on many a distant day,  
 The dread destruction of Trafalgar's Bay.  
 TRAFALGAR—cherish'd—but lamented name,  
 Our future heroes shall record thy fame ;  
 Oft' point to Cadiz tow'rs with anxious care,  
 And tell how NELSON bled in triumph there.'

Some of the expressions are trite : but, on this great occasion, the desire of offering an early tribute to the merits of the departed hero will not allow of that touching and re-touching which poetic composition requires.

Art. 19. *An Ode on the Victory and Death of Lord Viscount Nelson.*  
 8vo. 2s. Boosey.

Among the poetical *Nelsoniana* to which the memorable events of the 21st of October last have given birth, this Ode will not appear to disadvantage, as the reader will perceive from a single specimen :

' Ye lights of triumph ! ah ! no longer burn !  
 For he who bade you shine will never more return !  
 Cold is th' intrepid heart ! and dim that eye !  
 And motionless that hand  
 Which held the sword of Victory ;  
 And mute that tongue, which valour could command.  
 No mortal arm could save  
 The bravest of the brave.  
 Bring laurels that for ever bloom,  
 And strew around our Nelson's tomb !  
 And ye, sweet pensive Nymphs, to whom belong  
 The elegiac song,  
 Your wreaths of cypress and of willow wear !  
 Britannia's heartfelt loss lament,  
 In plaintive notes record the dire event,  
 And to each distant clime the mournful tidings bear !  
 For every virtuous bosom shall deplore  
 That Nelson is no more !'

The Verses subjoined on the Victory of the Nile, written by a Lady, are not of equal merit with the Ode, which has also some prosaic lines.

Art.

*Art. 20. A Monody on the Death of the late universally lamented Hero of the Nile, Copenhagen, and Trafalgar, the Right Hon. Horatio Lord Viscount Nelson, who fell gloriously off Cadiz, Oct. 21, 1805. By Charles Abbot, D.D. F.L. & A.S., &c. 4to. 1s. 6d. Crosby and Co.*

To represent Britannia weeping over the tomb of Nelson is poetical in a Monody: but the following thought is downright bombast;

'Yet now he bleeds;—SUN, on this awful day  
Hide from a mourning world thy envious ray,  
Since Death from Britain's view his conqueror shrouds,  
Turn what remains to angry storms and clouds.'

The old women, however, will say that Dr. Abbot, if he be not a poet, is at least a wizard; for since Nelson's death we have had scarcely any interval from storms.

In the following couplet, Glory speaks as if she acted in a kind of partnership with Heaven for the benefit of this country:

'Yet Britain, honour'd thus by Heav'n and me,  
Proclaim'd th' unrival'd ruler of the sea.'

The address to Britons, towards the conclusion, is not an unfavourable specimen of the poetry:

'O ye brave Britons! who with zeal aspire  
To emulate my Hero's martial fire,  
Who'd gladly renovate each proud campaign,  
St. Vincent's fight, Aboukir's crimson'd main,  
Can conquest, that has never yet declin'd  
To separate my warriors from mankind,  
Soothe your sad minds, or into calm surprise  
Whilst the dear Nelson still unburied lies?  
Ah me! that he whose arm so lately bore  
My mimic thunders to each distant shore,  
Should seal his Country's glories with his doom,  
Be borne about the waves, and want a tomb!'

A description of the funeral procession follows; and while poets are thus honouring the hero's sepulchral obsequies, is it not an indecorous circumstance that his coffin should be made a mercenary object of exhibition, and shewn like the elephant at Exeter 'Change for a shilling?

*Art 21. Monody on Admiral Lord Viscount Nelson; who, after a Series of transcendent and heroic Services, fell gloriously, Oct. 21, 1805, in the Battle of Trafalgar, at the Moment of obtaining the most brilliant and decisive Victory recorded in the Annals of Great Britain. By George Richards, A.M. F.A.S., late Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. 4to. 1s. Cadell and Davies.*

We cannot announce this Monody in terms that would be flattering to the author; yet, in consideration of the goodness of his intention, we shall be as civil to him as the rules of our court will permit, and merely ask him whether such couplets as these are creditable either to his muse or to the hero whom he would commemorate?

'The

- \* The tear would gush; for who can deem a good  
 E'en Nelson's Conquest, gain'd by Nelson's blood.  
 ' And born in ancient ages dark and drear,  
 When laws were weak and savage foes were near.  
 ' 'Tis Nature's sigh; 'tis Nature's tears are shed:  
 We knew him living, and we mourn him dead.  
 ' Where is the region on this rolling ball  
 But knew his glory, and regards his fall?

As a scholar, Mr. R. must know that the law for poetic compositions is *Dulcia sunt*. The concluding lines are of a better complexion:

- ' And, trust the Muse, on many a distant day,  
 When the tall vessels, on the watery way,  
 Bear from the realms of morn to Britain's shores  
 Golconda's gems and India's spicy stores,  
 As o'er the seas in shadowy pomp they sail,  
 And the long streamers play before the gale,  
 If seen from far, 'Trafalgar's summits gleam  
 With the mild radiance of the evening beam,  
 The sailor, pointing to the spot, shall tell,  
 "There Nelson conquer'd, and there Nelson fell."  
 A passing look the wondering eye shall turn;  
 And the big heart midst scenes of glory burn.  
 ' God of the world, by whose divine decree  
 Britannia's Cross in conquest rides the sea;  
 Our voice in this triumphant hour we raise:  
 Propitious hear our Prayer, accept our Praise.  
 Be thine the glory, that his conquering prow  
 So oft from combat bore the captive foe:  
 And oh! in mercy may thy high command  
 Raise other Nelsons to protect our Land.'

Art. 22. *A Poem on the Death of Admiral Lord Nelson*, with Hints for erecting a National Monument to perpetuate his honoured Memory, and that of the gallant Heroes who with him have fought, bled, and conquered, in the Cause of Britain. By Thomas Marshall, late of the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. 4to. 1s. Cawthorn.

This bard is animated with magnificent conceptions for the purpose of doing honour to the hero of Trafalgar; and he suggests the idea of erecting, at the national expence, a vast pyramid to the memory of *Nelson, Duff, Cooke*, &c. which is to be inscribed with lines to the following purport:

- \* STRANGER!—If hither drawn by curious eye,  
 Thou seek'st to know what means this massive pile;  
 Know, 'tis the homage that a grateful land,  
 Pays to her sons who fought in Britain's cause,  
 And with their sacred blood, her freedom seal'd!  
 BRITONS;—whom gratitude shall hither lead,



Keep ever in your minds this truth impress'd —  
 "Next to your GOD, your COUNTRY claims your love—"  
 Here bring your sons; and while with feeling hearts,  
 You speak the praises of the glorious dead,  
 Teach them to tread where NELSON trod before,  
 And emulate the virtues which they weep'—

If Mr. Marshall has not "built the lofty rhyme," he has yielded to patriotic feelings; which several writers besides himself have mistaken for poetic inspiration.

Art. 23. *The Death of the Hero.* Verses to the Memory of Lord Viscount Nelson. 4to. 1s. C. and R. Baldwin.

The quaintness of the following couplet might have been admired in the last age,

'Death! lo! he lives; the general tears that start  
 Proclaim the hero lives in every heart.'

The poet hopes that this living of the hero in our hearts will stimulate future Nelsons to acts of glory:

'We have a country!—hear me, God! we have  
 A country that contains a Nelson's grave.'

This is a couplet which contains more truth than poetry; and to other couplets in this short poem, the same remark would apply.

Art. 24. *Verses on the Death of Lord Nelson.* 4to. 1s. Clarke.

When a host of writers are occupied on the same subject, a monotony of sentiment must prevail. Lord Carlisle, whom we understand to be the author of this poetic tribute, has taken the common thought of the pleasure resulting from victory being embittered by the death of the conquering hero: but he has given it a kind of novelty, and has heightened the compliment, by introducing the enemy exulting even in his defeat because Nelson is numbered with the slain:

'Nelson's no more! exclaims th' exulting Gaul,  
 And views a future Navy in his fall.  
 O noble meed of worth, of high renown  
 As bright a Glory round true Valour throws,  
 As Britain beading o'er her fallen Chief,  
 Forgetting all her Conquest in her grief.'

The Earl means to say that the exultation of the foe is as glorious to the hero, as the grief of his countrymen: but the third and fourth lines, as they now stand, are not a complete sentence.

The concluding stanza is truly patriotic; being strongly expressive of the feelings of a noble minded Briton, who does not wish to outlive the independence of his country, and would rather see her annihilated than enslaved:

'Almighty Powers! then grant our Country's prayer,  
 O let her not the lot of others share:  
 Sooner than bid his foreign yoke obey  
 Plunge her white cliffs beneath the roaring sea.

Art,

Art. 25. *Werneria*, or, Short Characters of Earths : with Notes according to the Improvements of Klaproth, Vauquelin, and Haüy. By Terræ Filius. 12mo. pp. 113. 4s. Boards. Baldwins. 1805.

This reduction of the principal Wernerian characters of minerals into blank verse reminds us of the attempts of Grammarians to express Latin flexions and rules of Syntax in regular hexameters. Notwithstanding the apparent absurdity and obvious difficulty of such an extraordinary task, the writer who has here undertaken it evinces ingenuity, and even occasional success in the execution of his plan. Yet we are not certain that the science of mineralogy can be much promoted by *technical poetry*, of which the smoothest lines are to be regarded rather as literary curiosities than as precepts of much practical utility; and of which the *generality* of the lines may convey good scientific information, but can scarcely be called *verse*.

In point of *doctrine*, the present author is not a bigotted Wernerian: for, though the descriptions are mostly borrowed from the Professor of Freyberg, the genera and species are set down according to the arrangement of Born and Babington; while the notes exhibit some of the principal analytical results of the first authorities.—This *experiment* applies only to the *Earths*: but, should it be encouraged, we are informed that it may probably be extended to the *metals* and the *Inflammables*.

As an example of the text and notes, we cite the account of the third Genus.

‘ GENUS III.—BARYT.

*Schwererde. Germ.*

- ‘ Baryt to water gives the properties  
Of lime; with acid muriatic join’d,  
Forms salts that crystallize, — — —

‘ SPECIES I.—Sulfate of Baryt.

*Baroselenite, Schweinspath, Ponderous Spar.*

- ‘ When crystalliz’d becomes transparent, and  
Through laminæ pellucid gives the day;  
In colour white, or grey, flesh red, or pale,  
Ochry, yellow, cracks in the flame like spar  
Calcareous, and melts with heat intense

Like

---

‘ BARYT—The artificial carbonate of baryt is in form pulverulent, white, pungent, and heavy specifically 400. It unites with sulphur into a species of hepar, which has violent effects taken internally.

‘ SULFATE OF BARYTES is harder than carbonate of lime, and softer than fluat. Its crystals are aggregated lengthened octohedrons, with wedge-like summits, or tabular, with four corners bevelled at their angles, and edges of their extremities; or hexedral, with sharp dihedral summits, or rhomboidal. A small bit taken from the blow-pipe, after having been there an instant, and applied to the tongue, gives a taste of rotten eggs. It has more than twice the quantity of heavy

Like cobalt into glass, and if calcin'd  
In open fire, in contact with the flame,  
It grows phosphoric, and is in darkness  
Visible. — — —

' SPECIES II.—*Carbonate of Baryt.*

' The carbonate of baryt most commonly  
Is found in mass amorphous; but sometimes  
In crystals of six sides, with pyramids  
Join'd base to base; of faint transparency,  
In texture compact, and with diverging  
Striz, in lustre moderate, milk-white,  
Or greyish, or with a tinge of yellow,  
By no means hard, and yielding to the knife.

' SPECIES III.—*Liberstein, Liver-stone.*

' This stone, when heated red, emits a smell  
Of sulphur, is in texture foliate,  
And partly striate.' — — —

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earth, than sulphuric acid. In sp. gr. it is 4—965 when pure, requiring for its solution 43,000 times its weight in water. It occurs in metallic mines, in veins, and nodules, and makes a part in certain compound-rocks. The Bologna-stone is a variety of sulfate of barytes, and is the first example of phosphorescence being procured by calcination. Carasciolo, about one hundred years ago, thought, from the weight of the Bologna-stone, to have found silver in it, but he discovered nothing but a reddish light, which the calcined stone emitted in the dark. At that time phosphorescence was a rare occurrence; now it would be as strange to find a substance, which could not be made luminous by dissolution, or by calcination. We make no use of sulfate of baryt in the arts. The Chinese, it is said, use chekao in their porcelain, which resembles the Bologna-stone. Analysis of sulfate of baryt, by Withering,

Baryt. . . . . 67.

Sulphuric acid. . . . 32—8.

' CARBONATE OF BARYT, in weak nitric acid, deposits a white substance of a fine colour before its perfect dissolution. It is phosphorescent, and breaks scaly, and wavy, and appears somewhat greasy. It contains;

Carbonic acid. . . . . 20—8.

Baryt. . . . . 78—6.

' The crystals of carbonate of baryt are not very common. It is a poison for rats, and is the rat-stone. Journal des Mines, N. 21, p. 36, de Pelletier.

' Spec. gr. 4—2919. Found at Anglesark, near Chorley, Lancashire.

' LIVER-STONE comes from Konigsberg in Norway, where it served for a matrix of native silver, of which M. Manthey gave M. Haüy a specimen. Its spec. grav. is 2—666. It does not effervesce with acids. Its analysis is, sulfate of baryt 38, silice 33, sulfate of alumine 22, sulfate of lime 7, petroleum 5. Bergman.'

Of dull and unmusical lines, we may easily conceive that the number is not inconsiderable : but a few instances may suffice.

- Some than others are more perfect, and hence' —
- In powder ; in colour white ; in taste hot.' —
- Or with ore spathose incrustcd, is half' —
- In texture with parallelipipids
- Rhombidally compressed ; if 'bove redness,' &c.

Should the author find it worth his while to *versify* the metals, or attempt to celebrate the *Inflammables* in *glowing* numbers, we hope that he will be able to avoid the repetition of such measured prose. He has evidently bestowed considerable attention on his subject ; and we believe him to be capable of sketching an outline of mineralogy in neat and perspicuous language.

The Rev. Stephen Weston is the reputed author of this singular production.

#### LAW.

Art. 26. *The whole Trial of Col. Robert Passingham and John Edwards*, for a Conspiracy against George Townsend Forrester, Esq. Barrister, with intent to deprive the said George Forrester of his Wife and Property ; and charging him with many unnatural Crimes : with the whole Pleadings of the Counsel, before Lord Ellenborough, Chief Justice of the King's Bench, 21st February, 1805 ; and the Speech of Mr. Justice Grose on pronouncing Sentence, July 2d., &c. 8vo. 1s. Butters.

It was observed, we believe, by Lord Ellenborough on this trial, that the evidence was too shocking to be heard in a court of justice, and certainly too horrid to be disseminated. On this principle, it would be improper for any publisher to print the '*whole trial*,' as is stated in this title page, but which certainly is not given in the pamphlet, which contains only a summary. The defendants were sentenced to be imprisoned in Newgate for three years.

Art. 27. *The Trial of Capt. William Smith*, of the East India Company's Battalion of Artillery, for Criminal Conversation with Mrs. Mary Bond, Wife of Lieut. Charles Bond, of the same Corps ; before Sir Benjamin Sullivan, Knt. Recorder, and a Special Court assembled at Bombay, Feb. 13th, 1804. 8vo. 3s. Ginger.

If it be but too notorious that the crime here recorded has lately become very prevalent in this part of the world, it cannot be surprising that it should occur in the more luxurious climate of Asia.

The purport of the publication of the present trial, in this country, seems to be to afford a proof that, as the editor observes, the state of morals in India is not only subject to the check of public opinion, but is accompanied by every mark of public obloquy and reprobation. We are glad if this be generally found to be the consequence of the promulgation of all law, divine and human ; for we are sure that the general resentment of society would much more effectually deter from the commission of this crime, than the award of pecuniary punishment only nominal ; and it is to be regretted that the salutary censure is so seldom displayed, at least to

The speech of the plaintiff's counsel, Mr. [unclear], was [unclear] by the editor as 'a lecture on the principles of the law of evidence, which may be beneficial to the public.' The evidence in this case proved the crime rather by inference than by direct facts. But it was sufficient to convince the jury, and a verdict was returned for the plaintiff, with damages 32,000 Rupees. Very aggravated guilt certainly at-  
tended the crime.

NOVELS.

*Discussions on the New Man of Feeling.* By William [unclear]. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. boards. R. Phillips.

We have here another instance of Mr. Godwin's ability in sketching manners and characters with a peculiar boldness of design, and in drawing those reflections which assist us in dissecting and analysing human nature. Fleetwood and Ruffigny are personages evidently created to carry out the author's philosophy, and so far they are both worthy of notice; but the former, though laboured with most care, and is deeply connected as the latter; nor, in the whole fable, is there any part so interesting as the Episode which gives the history of Ruffigny. Though the novel professes to be a series of natural incidents, it is far from being of this character towards the conclusion; where the author seems to be embarrassed, and to have surrendered himself to the givings of romance and stage effect. In several instances, it represents Fleetwood, who in general appears to be a man of sound judgment, acting like a perfect simpleton. It might be the author's design to show by this character in what various ways man, even in his reason, is deluged by himself in vain; and-how, by the leaven which he carries about in his mental composition, and by our intercourse with society, he becomes disturbed and acidulated. The moral tendency of this detail is unexceptionable; since it shews that, however we may assume the attire of enjoyment, and the dissipation of the moment may mislead us, innocence is the soul of pleasure, and goodness the source of true excellence.

It is the state of youth were not a state of natural drunkenness, to which the precepts of wisdom and the admonitions of experience are opposed; in which, we might expect that the delineation of the vicious Fleetwood's life would operate as a caution; but passion and ignorance will disguise the lessons of reason; and though author follows in proclaiming the depressing truth that "vanity of vanities, all is vanity," the rising generation will open their eyes on the world with the same visions of hope, and like their predecessors will insist on judging for themselves.

*The Count de Valmont: or the Errors of Reason,* translated from the French. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. boards. Hatchard. [unclear] having been employed in the dissemination of scepticism [unclear] the original author of this work has been induced to [unclear] for the administration of their antidote. The [unclear] involved, nor are the incidents many and multifarious. The [unclear] are rather dissertations than narratives, in which

which the interesting topics of natural and revealed religion, &c. are amply discussed. From the cast of the characters, and the complexion of the arguments, we suppose the author to be a Catholic priest; who, under the signature of the Marquis, (to whom all parties make their confessions,) details a variety of opinions. In general, we object not to their substance, though we fear that they will tire by their perplexity: but one of his sentiments is so extremely reprehensible, that we should be altogether false to our trust if we omitted to mark it with the most pointed condemnation. '*True religion,*' says the Marquis in one of his letters to the Count his son, '*is in its nature intolerant; for truth being one and indivisible cannot be connected with what is in opposition to it.*' This exploded popish fallacy we did not expect to find in a modern novel; especially in one which undertakes to expose '*the Errors of Reason;*' for the worst error that ever infested the world is that which tends to cherish the spirit of persecution, which cannot be more directly fostered than by the above-mentioned sentiment of the Marquis. In the note, he farther develops his meaning; for while he with apparent candour declaims against '*bitter zeal and the spirit of persecution,*' he artfully insinuates that as '*God cannot tolerate a false worship,*' so '*restraint and punishment, which are directed against it, cannot properly be termed persecution.*'

The amiable translator (we understand that we owe the English dress and abridgment of this novel to a young lady) was aware of the objections to which the Marquis's reasoning was liable, and has endeavoured to soften its tendency in a note: but her observations, though very liberal and honorable to her heart, do not reach the bottom of the mischief, since they do not detect the sophism of the Marquis; for the oneness of truth has nothing to do with the question, unless the Deity had appointed an individual to be an infallible judge of truth, and had put the sword into his hands to enforce it.

The fact is, that the religion of Jesus Christ is completely tolerant. It gives no individual nor body of men dominion over faith, but leaves every one to the free enjoyment of his own sentiments; and it strictly prohibits the use of external force or violence in its propagation or support. Under the Gospel, different forms of worship are allowable; yet every form, excepting that of his own church, the Marquis might be disposed to denominate '*false worship:*' but that worship, in our estimation, cannot be false, in which the Deity, whether in St. Peter's or in St. Paul's, in the Kirk or in the Tabernacle, is adored in spirit and in truth. God forbid that our countrymen should adopt the narrow maxim of this supposed Marquis, that '*a religion which considers every other as allowable is not a religion:*' an axiom, the admission of which must lead to the most serious consequences.

Our strictures reflect not in the smallest degree on the translator. She informs us that she has considerably abridged the original, where she found the sentiments not adapted to the protestant reader; and had she fully penetrated the design of her author, we are persuaded that we should have been relieved from the necessity of making these

these remarks. Indeed, the part which belongs to this Lady is altogether creditable to her. In addition to a translation neatly executed, we find notes which manifest reading and taste; and had she drawn from the stores of her own mind, she would probably have produced a better novel than *Les Egaremens de la Raison*.

## POLITICS.

Art. 30. *An Address to the Public: containing a Review of the Charges exhibited against Lord Viscount Melville. which led to the Resolutions of the House of Commons on the 8th of April 1805.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Hatchard.

As the case of Lord Melville is intended to undergo the most ample legal discussion, this pamphlet, we conceive, might have been spared: but, if his advocate was resolved to review the charges previously to their discussion in the supreme court of the nation, he should have contented himself with the most temperate statements. Inquiry into the conduct of men high in office should not be stigmatized as a matter of party; nor is it decorous in this writer to call Mr. Whitbread 'the Arch accuser.' Such is human nature, that the low will feel pleasure in the degradation of persons of rank and station: but the elevated, when virtue is their shield, may defy the shafts of envy and malignity. When, therefore, such a man as Lord M. is arraigned, we should only advert to the naked matter of fact, and, without stigmatizing his accuser, consider fairly the grounds of the accusation. We do not approve this writer's prefatory insinuations about a zeal for party; nor his intimations that charges, which originated in a Parliamentary Report, should be suspected of 'premeditated persecution.' That heavy responsibility, under which persons high in office profess to act, should secure Mr. Whitbread from all blame in the part which he has taken in the business respecting Lord Melville; as a member of the senate, he has only displayed that vigilance which the constitution required of him; and it is even extremely impolitic in a professed advocate of his lordship to prejudice the cause which he espouses, by reflections on the individual who for national purposes stands forwards as the public accuser, or to pretend to lament that the latter is 'hurried beyond the limits which his own integrity would prescribe.'

Conformably to the liberal spirit of English law, we presume Lord M.'s innocence; and may evidence prove it. We enter into his feelings during the cruel suspense; though we cannot allow, when we consider the rank of his judges, that he has any reason ultimately to fear the operation of vulgar ignorance and prejudice. If, as it is here asserted, 'the charges in the tenth report do not appear to be sufficiently authenticated,' the accused will have ground of triumph: but Mr Pitt's motion for a *select* committee, to re-examine the report, is no proof that 'that mind is worm-eaten with prejudice' which resisted the minister's proposal.

In pleading Lord M.'s innocence, this writer traverses the ground repeatedly occupied by parliament, and his strictures on the matter of the 10th report are ingenious; yet we must repeat that he diminishes their

their effect by suggesting that the real aim of the proceedings against his lordship was to 'impair the strength of administration.' We must admit, however, that this pamphlet manifests itself to be the production of no ordinary writer; and we have no reluctance in coinciding with his views, in hoping that this address will so far benefit Lord M. as to persuade the public against forming a pre-judgment.

Art. 31. *Second Report of the Committee for managing the Patriotic Fund*, established at Lloyd's Coffee-House 20th July 1803. 8vo. Boards. Not sold.

We mentioned the first report of this committee in our number for October last, p. 214; and the contributors to this benevolent institution will be glad to receive a second statement of the manner in which their largesses have been distributed. The noble feelings of the country continue to pour the most copious streams into this reservoir of public benevolence; and we trust that there will be no reason for alleging that any part of its current has been mis-directed. May we intimate, however, that *magnificent vases*, &c. rather trench on the primary design of the fund, and perhaps on the proper powers of a body of individuals; and that disabled seamen and soldiers, and the relics of such as have fallen, are the properest objects of its bounty? We were pleased to hear that the whole of the contributions on the thanksgiving day were restricted to this purpose.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 32. *A general History of Inland Navigation*, foreign and domestic: containing a complete Account of the Canals already executed in England; with Considerations on those projected. Abridged from the Quarto Edition, and continued to the present Time. By J. Phillips. 4th Edition. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Taylor, High-Holborn.

An account of Mr. Phillips's larger work on Inland Navigation was given in M. R. Vol. ix. N. S. p. 319. The present abridgment of it has been undertaken by the author in order more easily to accommodate that part of the agricultural and commercial community, to which the purchase of a quarto volume might be inconvenient. As a recommendation of this edition, he remarks that 'though much of the more unimportant part of my larger work has been omitted, yet many considerable additions and improvements have been made, and some errors have been corrected, and upon the whole I think it will be found as useful, and in some respects, even superior to the original publication.'

On the utility of inland navigation, especially for the conveyance of heavy articles, no observation is now requisite. We find that, since the year 1759, when the Duke of Bridgewater's canal was begun, 165 acts of parliament have been passed for making and perfecting canals. The particular history of the several artificial canals, which intersect our island, forms the substance of this amusing and instructive work; and among the projects, Mr. P. does not omit to notice the



the impracticable scheme of making a tunnel under the Thames from Gravesend to Tilbury.

We wish that Mr. P. had given with this abridgment the map of the canals in England, which embellishes the quarto volume.

Art. 33. *An Essay on the Construction, Hanging, and Fastening of Gates*; exemplified in Six Quarto Plates. Second Edition improved and enlarged By Thomas N. Parker Esq. Large 8vo. pp. 116. 6s. Boards. Lackington and Co.

The first edition of this useful work was published in 1801, and noticed by us in M. R. Vol. xxxix. N S. p. 3, 5. Since that period, its ingenious author has enabled himself to lecture yet more scientifically and correctly on the subject: and the present edition is a more enlarged and elegant publication, which we recommend to the attention of gentlemen and scientific agriculturists, *quibus studium arva tueri*. The unlettered farmer will not comprehend Mr. Parker's mathematical illustrations, but he may derive benefit from the adoption of his maxims; and in this case implicit faith can do him no harm. Without the plates, it is impossible to exhibit this gentleman's principles to advantage: but we shall transcribe, from his chapter 'on the composition and resolution of forces, in determining the weight sustained by the hinges of gates,' the *general theorem* which was the result of various experiments.

'As the space between the two points of suspension is to the weight of the gate; so is the horizontal distance of the perpendicular line drawn through the gate's center of gravity, from the perpendicular line drawn through the two points of the gate's suspension, to the horizontal strain on either of the two hinges.'

Mr. Parker employs his last chapter in recommending the application of cast iron work for hanging and fastening gates; and this is a part of the pamphlet to which farmers should attend on the principle of economy.

Art. 34. *Thoughts on the Propriety of granting a pecuniary Remuneration to the West India Dock Directors*; with a View of the Situation of the Directors of the Bank of England, of the East India Company, and the Imperial Assurance Office, as far as they apply to that Proposition. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale.

This writer compares the case of the West India Dock Directors with those of the Directors of the several companies mentioned in the title page. The late advance of salary to the Directors of the Bank is not blamed, in itself considered, but is censured on account of the manner and time in which it was brought forwards: since it was proposed and carried, the author states, without previous notice, and at a meeting thinly attended: it also followed closely on the great loss which the Bank sustained through the fraud of an individual, and the carelessness of the Directors. He informs us that it has been in contemplation to reduce the number of the East India Directors from twenty-four to twelve, and to divide between the members thus reduced the amount of the present salaries, in order to make it worth the while of persons of superior qualifications to take a share in that most important charge.

The highest praise is bestowed by this writer on the members and objects of the Imperial Assurance Company; and similar commendation is bestowed on the Institution and Directors whom this pamphlet more immediately respects. He eloquently and dexterously applies the argument *ad verecundiam*: but the feelings of the city, it would seem, were not to be affected by it; for, if we are well informed, notwithstanding the recorded opinion of the Corporation of the Metropolis, the Directors have determined that the acceptance of the salaries which have been voted to them would not diminish their respectability, nor ill accord with the flattering circumstances which belong to the vast patronage which they enjoy.

Art. 35. *Lives of the Ancient Philosophers*; comprehending a Choice Selection of their best Maxims. Written for the Education of a Prince, by the Author of *Telemachus*. Translated from the French, illustrated with Notes, and preceded by a Life of Fenelon. By John Cormack, A. M. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. boards. Longman and Co.

Since the mind of Fenelon was imbued by the finest sayings of ancient sages, who will presume to attempt a version of his renderings, to paint his exquisite phraseology, and to copy the inimitable elegance of his style? It must be a scholar at once profound and refined; a person who moves in the first circles of the capital, and who is ever listening to the happiest combinations of language, whether in conversation, in the speeches of eminent senators, or in the performances of first rate actors. A translator of these biographical sketches, in order to be successful, should unite to all these advantages a diligent study of the maxims which they contain, as they occur in the originals whence they have been drawn; and he should regard the versions of the admirable prelate as only helps and guides. The task has, however, been undertaken by a person of more humble pretensions; yet we shall not find fault with his adventurous spirit; since we are more inclined to thank him for recalling to our recollection the pleasure which we derived from the perusal of the fascinating original, and for doing that which, but for him, would most likely have remained long undone. His translation, if not executed with superior felicity, seems unimpeachable on the score of fidelity.

Art. 36. *A View of Modern France*; and British Traveller's Guide, from London to Paris, containing the most minute Information for Travellers, from the Moment of their intending to leave London, to their Arrival, and during their Stay in Paris; with Forms of Passports, and every necessary Instruction respecting them, &c. Illustrated with Maps and an Engraving. By David Morrice. Crown 8vo. 6s. Boards. Hatchard.

Had the intercourse between England and France remained uninterrupted by war, this view of Modern France would have proved highly useful to the generality of travellers, whom curiosity would have tempted to cross the water; since the minutest circumstances are detailed respecting passports, stages, packets, inns, baggage, lodgings, &c.: but, under existing circumstances, this species of information will excite little interest, for the obvious reason that it is  
of

of no immediate use. Mr. Morrice will therefore now excuse us from making any extracts from his book, though we will do him the justice to own that, had peace continued, we should have esteemed it a duty to our readers to have transcribed several of his remarks. — We do not perceive the necessity of inserting, in a Traveller's Guide, an account of antient Gaul; and, since a *vade mecum* should be kept as small as possible for the purpose of convenient package, we advise Mr. Morrice (should he live to see "our bruised arms hung up for monuments") to omit this part of his work, and to accommodate the whole to the instruction of his countrymen: many of whom would be glad to save their money, if they knew how, and would feel grateful to a writer who condescended to those humble details which, if they make no figure in description, are of much practical utility.

Art. 37. *Recherches sur le tems le plus reculé de l'usage des Voûtes chez les Anciens.* Par M. L. Dutens. 8vo. 2s. De Boffe.

A conversation concerning the date at which Vaults or Domes were first used among the Antients gave rise to the present Essay. M. Dutens cites the tomb of the Scipios discovered in 1781, which he himself saw in the year following, and says: — *Il est composé d'une longue galerie en briques envoutée.* — This single instance, without the aid of others, is sufficient to establish that Vaults were known before the age of Augustus: but the material question appears to us to be, did the antients know and practise the principle of vaulting; even granting that, in certain edifices, they exhibited the vault form? We believe that the Antients did employ this principle; and that arches (*Voûtes en berceau*) are to be found in the Temple of the Sun at Athens. The passage from Aristotle, adduced by M. Dutens, in our opinion, goes a considerable way towards establishing the same fact.

Art. 38. *A Vindication of the Celts*, from ancient Authorities; with Observations on Mr. Pinkerton's Hypothesis concerning the Origin of the European Nations, in his *Modern Geography*, and Dissertation on the Scythians or Goths. 8vo. pp. 172. 5s. Boards. Williams.

The work, to which these researches principally refer, escaped our notice at the time of its appearance; a circumstance which we cannot much regret, if it were the object of it to support the whimsical and extravagant paradoxes which are controverted in the present tract. Indeed, we are only surprized that any man of competent information should deem them worthy of serious animadversion. We collect from these pages, that the *author of the Dissertation* has amused himself with inventing distinctions which were altogether unknown to antiquity, viz. those of old and new Celts, German Gauls, and Germans. These, in the Dissertator's hands, became a species of machinery, by which he was able to recast history, to new-mould the characters of nations, and to give what aspects best pleased him to the antient world. He thus converted it into fairy land, of which the man of learning was as ignorant as the tyro who had just opened his Cellarius. The one was nearly as much a stranger as the other to the vast Scythic empire, which figured in Mr. Pinkerton's lucubrations; and which was there made to extend in the re-

mostest antiquity from Hindostan to Egypt. As little was the scholar acquainted with Scythian eruptions, which preceded our era by more than twenty centuries; and from Mr. P. he learned, for the first time, that this same people occupied Thrace, Illyrium, Greece, and Asia Minor, a thousand years before the same period, and possessed themselves of Italy and a great part of Gaul, five hundred years later. He heard, with some astonishment, that Scythia was blessed with a temperate and genial climate, and that it was inhabited by a prolific race. He was informed that, long before the birth of Christ, the same Scythians, having first peopled the eastern parts of our quarter of the globe, afterward possessed themselves exclusively of a large part of Gaul, and two thirds of our own island; and that the Saxon invaders found in Britain a kindred race, strongly resembling themselves in manners, and in language. He was taught that the Goths, who subverted the Roman empire, were the direct descendants of the antient Scythians of whom Herodotus speaks, and that the Greeks and Romans sprang from Scythian tribes. It was shewn to him that, by the side of a brave, estimable, and enlightened people, (Mr. P.'s German Gauls,) lived tribes the most stupid and abject of the human race, the antient Gauls or genuine Celts: and that the north-west of Gaul, and the Western and Northern shores of Britain, as also Ireland, had their surface encumbered by this refuse of humanity. He was moreover told to his no small surprise that the genuine Gauls never sacked Rome, over-ran Greece, nor made settlements in Asia Minor; that these expeditions were only visits which passed between relations, the Scytho-Gauls, and the Scytho-Romans and Scytho-Greeks. These, and such as these are the notable discoveries for which the public was indebted to Mr. Pinkerton; which if we adopt, we must be content to receive the renderings of false versions and garbled quotations as authorities; and in the room of arguments, to accept misrepresentations which ignorance alone cannot excuse, and assertions which contradict the unanimous voice of antiquity, as well as the universal opinion of scholars.

As we have not taken notice of the work of Mr. Pinkerton, we do not deem it proper to extend our account of these animadversions on it. If there be persons who take delight in such precious disquisitions, we must refer them to the productions of the respective combatants. Investigations of this nature are at best little inviting: but, when conducted with bad faith, when blended with malignity, and when they indicate glaring defects in judgment, they form the most disgusting objects of any that present themselves in the vast field of literature. It is not to the Celtic vindicator, who has conducted himself with exemplary temper, that we would be understood to apply these remarks: but to the Caledonian reviler of the antient population of Europe; who, if the general notion with respect to the Celts be just, and if resemblance as to characteristic qualities may be received as evidence of affinity, must be concluded to bear in his veins no small portion of the blood of a people, his hatred of whom rises to absolute frenzy. It will be in vain for him, while his invectives are recollected, to disclaim his alliance with the race that is the object of them, and of which it has been said that

*"prona furori*

*Corda calent, subitaque ignescunt pectora bile;*  
*Cum digitis, credas animos quoque sulphure tinctos."*

If

If we might be allowed to indulge a conjecture as to the other tribe which lent its aid to the formation of the irritable antiquary, we should conclude it to be that which is described as.

*"Gens rationis furens, & mentem pasta chimæris."*

THANKSGIVING SERMONS, Dec. 5.

Art. 39. *Victory considered as an Incentive to Piety, Temperance, and Charity.* Preached in the Parish Church of Tewkesbury. By the Rev. Robert Knight, M.A., Vicar of Tewksbury. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

With a mind alive to the horrors which war brings in its train, Mr. K. hopes that it has not been waged but as a dire necessity; and if it must be classed among those "Offences which *must* come" on nations, he justly remarks that a Victory which secures us from havoc and desolation cannot be contemplated with too much gratitude. Yet he exhorts to no intemperate expressions of unhallowed joy, but drops a tear on the tomb of the hero of Trafalgar, and successfully \* pleads in behalf of those who were made widows and orphans by the carnage attendant on our late naval triumph.

Art. 40. Preached on the Day of Thanksgiving, for the Victory of Trafalgar. By the Rev. James Moore, LL.B., &c. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Continental disasters are represented by Mr. Moore as counterbalanced by that success which is the subject of public thanksgiving. With the generality of divines, he flatters us with the assurance that we are "strong in the Lord;" and that we may look forwards with confidence to the issue of the contest: but, as benefits conferred demand obedience in return, he enforces the obligations of morality, calls on a victorious nation to be generous to her defenders, and humanely hopes that the blood, which has been shed, will speedily lead to peace.

Art. 41. Preached at the Great Synagogue, Duke's Place, on the 14 Kislev, (A.M.) 5565, answering to Thursday 5th December, 1805. By the Rev. Solomon Hirschel, President Rabbi (erroneously styled the High Priest) of the German Jews in London. Arranged and rendered into English by a Friend. 4to. 1s. 6d. Richardsons.

Christians cannot object to the sentiments contained in this Jewish sermon, since they are those of humanity and good will to man. Mr. Hirschel observes that 'in thanksgivings we are grateful for our escape and future preservation from the machinations of our enemies; but not in the spirit of malicious triumph over the destruction of our fellow-creatures, which ought not to be the final cause of war.' He zealously asserts the doctrine of a providence, exhorts his hearers to seek the divine favour by a life of virtue, and, while they supplicate the Almighty for his aid in a just cause, to be prepared at all points against the enemy.—The Rabbi laments that the sins of the Jews have deprived them of *miraculous* displays of divine power for their protection.

Art. 42. *The Sword of the Lord, and of Britain;*—preached at Peckham, in Surrey. By William Bengo Collyer. 8vo. 1s. Conder.

\* The collection after the sermon was 89l. 3s. 1½d.

This preacher feels great satisfaction in comparing the state of this country with that of such kingdoms on the continent as have been desolated by war; and he tells us that 'as were the Israelites of old, so is Great Britain chosen, "not because we are more in number than any other people, but because the Lord loved us."—Perhaps this kind of assertion manifests a degree of presumption. Is it not arrogating too much to ourselves?—As human exertion must be combined with a trust in God, and as we are not (any more than the Jews) permitted to expect miracles, Mr. C. maintains the lawfulness of self-defence, and, when the conflict is decided in our favour, the propriety of pious gratitude, decently expressed. The sermon concludes with a particular address in behalf of the Patriotic Fund.

Art. 43. *Preached to the Society who support the Sunday Evening Lectures in the Old Jewry; &c.* By the Rev. John Edwards. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

That the great and wide sea, which separates though it yet connects nations, is the Lord's; that he can give the empire of it to whomsoever he pleases; that, in modern times he has conferred it on Great Britain, and by the late victory has confirmed to us this dominion, are the leading ideas of Mr. Edwards's discourse, from Ps. xcv. 5. By this boon he considers the "ships, colonies, and commerce," of which our enemy confesses himself to be in want, as secured to us; and invasion as for the present at least prevented. Victory, however, having been accomplished by the loss of the gallant Nelson, she is represented by the preacher as rejoicing with one eye and deploring with the other.

Art. 44. *Imperium Pelagi.*—Preached at Cirencester. By the Rev. John Bulman, Chaplain to General Phillipson's late Regiment of 20th Light Dragoons. 4to 1s. Robinson.

From the title of this pamphlet, we might have been led to expect a poem, but we find only a preachment,—a preachment, however, of which the author needs not be ashamed. Mr. Bulman, as a politico-theological declaimer, has displayed some ingenuity in the view which he takes of our own situation and of that of the enemy. If we obtain a victory by sea, it is a positive blessing of Providence; if the enemy have acquired a counterbalancing advantage by land, we are to remember that wicked tyrants and oppressors are employed by the Almighty, in the same manner as he uses the plague, pestilence, and famine, to execute his purposes; and that therefore success on the part of the foe can never be esteemed as a mark of the divine vour. By thus touching politics with what the preacher calls 'the spear of revelation,' he endeavours to convince his hearers that every thing is for the best: and his doctrine is so comfortable, that we will not try it by the rules of logic.

Art. 45. *The true Basis of National Confidence in Seasons of Distress*—preached in the Parish Church of St. James's, Bristol. By the Rev. Thomas T. Biddulph, A.M., Minister of the said Church, &c. 8vo. 1s. Printed at Bristol.

After having entered a serious protest against carnal confidence, Mr. B. exhorts to a pious trust in God; and while we appreciate the value and importance of the victory of Trafalgar, he urges us to remember

member the name of the Lord our God; "to praise him for all that is past; and to trust him for all that's to come."

Mr. B.'s inducement to the publication of this sermon was to add, by the profit arising from its sale, a mite to the Patriotic Fund.

## SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 46. *A brief and impartial View of the Two most generally received Theories of the Fall of Man, and its Consequences.* Preached at Doncaster, April 21, 1805. By the Rev. P. Inchbald, A.B. late of University College, Oxford; to which are added, Explanatory Notes, and References to the most eminent Divines who have written upon that Subject. 4to. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

As an historian of the two opinions here given, Mr. I. has executed his office with as much candour and impartiality as could be expected. The Calvinist cannot say that he has mis-stated his view of the subject; yet he must perceive that the preacher inclined to the milder and less revolting account given in the last of the theories stated in this sermon. If the unscriptural term "Original Sin" is to be explained, as Dr. Clarke would have it, to mean only the *first introducing* of sin, it does not include the idea, as some divines maintain, of our sinning in Adam, and of the transmission of guilt to all his posterity; so that such an event as the fall might have happened without "instantiating us to the very core with sin," according to Mr. Wilberforce. Whatever theory of the fall be adopted by Christians, this preacher hopes that it will produce in them resignation, humility, and prayer for divine assistance and grace through the Gospel.

Art. 47. Preached in the Parish Church of St. Mary, Bedford, November 10, 1805, on the Death of the late Lord Viscount Nelson. By Charles Abbot, D. D. &c. 8vo. 1s. Printed at Bedford.

Dr. Abbot calls on the patriot to suspend his harp on a new species of willow, 'the willow of gratitude,' for the death of our illustrious hero. We applaud his warm expressions of sorrow on this occasion, but we trust that the death of Lord Nelson, in the arms of victory, does not 'threaten the naval prosperity of the country.' At Portsmouth, the declamatory parts of this discourse would have been more appropriate than at Bedford; but there, we are persuaded, the above sentiment would not be cherished.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

'A Constant Reader', who dates from Ipswich, is intitled to our thanks, for his communication; but we do not know that we shall be able to make use of it, since the work in question does not absolutely require our notice.

W. H. must perceive that the insertion of his letter would draw us into a controversy, in a manner which is inconsistent with the nature of our work. If he wishes it to be returned, and will give us his address, it shall be duly forwarded.

\*. The APPENDIX to Vol. XLVIII. of the M.R. is published with this Number.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY, 1806.

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ART. I. *The Life of Professor Gellert; with a Course of Moral Lessons, delivered by him in the University of Leipsic; taken from a French Translation of the Original German.* By Mrs. Douglas, of Ednam House. 3 Vols. 8vo. 18s. Boards. Hatchard. 1805.

THE virtue and the talents of Professor Gellert are not unknown to this country; and it may be desirable that the traits which distinguished his character, with some specimens of his public labours which were so highly prized in Germany, should be submitted to the English reader. It is to be regretted, however, that they have come to us through the medium of a translation of a translation; and if the public may tolerate this inconvenience, resulting perhaps from the state of the continent, it can scarcely be expected that criticism should sit in judgment on the shadow of a shade. In no case, perhaps, could the circumstance have occurred less favorably; since the lessons here delivered derive their merit less from research and analysis, than from the ready way by which they endeavour to reach the heart, and are addressed more to the feelings than to the reasoning faculties. It is therefore peculiarly the duty of the translator to study the turns of expression, the spirit, and the scope of the original: but such cannot in this instance have been the task of Mrs. Douglas: to whose good intentions we must be sensible, and whose circumscribed exertions we must receive with allowance.

It appears to have been the object of M. Gellert, in the present course, rather to render youth lovers and followers of virtue, than to instruct them in the niceties and subtleties of ethics as a system; and the compositions resemble sermons more than academical lectures. When the importance of early inculcating and strengthening religious and moral principles is considered, we are disposed to commend the plan without minutely animadverting on its execution. We must however admit that, weakened and disguised as we may suppose the author's ideas to be in these pages, they still retain merit sufficient



ficient to induce us to credit the accounts of the celebrity which they obtained in the most enlightened districts of the continent. We should also take into our consideration the degree in which they would be embellished by those charms of language, and by those graces of elocution, of which the Professor was master; and how much they would be enhanced when regarded as proceeding from the lips of a beloved and revered instructor, whose whole demeanour was an exemplar of the precepts which he delivered.

Christian Furchtegott Gellert was the son of a clergyman at Haynichen in Saxony, and was born in 1715. His youngest brother is known by his proficiency in the science of metallurgy, and is now inspector of the mines at Freiberg. He received his education at a public school at Meissen, and very early displayed a taste and a talent for poetry. In 1734, he went to the University at Leipzig, where he remained four years; and on leaving College, he commenced the duty of the pulpit, and the instruction of some private pupils. Returning afterward to Leipzig, he employed himself in writing, and in giving lectures; and in 1751, he obtained the situation of Professor Extraordinary in Philosophy, with a pension. Soon after this period, a violent hypochondriac affection rendered his days melancholy and his nights comfortless: yet he persevered in the duties of his station with most exemplary resolution. In 1761, a chair of Professor in Ordinary becoming vacant, he was nominated to the situation, but he declined it on account of his ill health. His labours, however, as a lecturer and as an author, were still continued; and he constantly received fresh marks of esteem and respect, from his pupils, from Princes, and from the public at large on the continent. His disorder gaining ground, an inflammation in the bowels put a period to his valuable life on the 13th of December 1769.

The ensuing relation will afford the reader an idea of the superior turn of mind which distinguished the Professor:

‘ His friendship was not merely the effect of natural disposition; it was produced by a sincere love for religion and virtue. He strongly felt that they alone can make any one truly amiable, that they alone constitute happiness; and when he met with persons unfortunate, enough not to possess these qualities, he was touched with a most lively compassion, and neglected nothing in his power to make them better, and consequently happier. Some years after his return to Leipsick, he became acquainted with an unfortunate person of this kind. This man was like many others, who are said not to have a bad heart. The love of pleasure and libertinism led him to infidelity, and from hence he passed on to disorders, which equally destroyed his health and his fortune. Attacked by an illness equally disgraceful

ful and painful, he wanted for every thing: he had neither tranquillity of mind, consolation, the means of procuring to himself any assistance, nor any hope of recovery; which hope can alone support the despisers of religion, and give them that degree of calmness ever necessary to their bodily cure. Despair and impatience aggravated the sufferings of this poor wretch: the most horrible oaths proceeded from his mouth every moment; there was no imprecation he did not pronounce against himself; no blasphemy he did not utter against Providence. Gellert, touched with compassion by this man's dreadful sufferings, and above all, by the deplorable state of his soul, was very desirous of relieving him. With this view, he began by endeavouring to gain his confidence, to convince him of the interest he took in him, and of the tender compassion he felt for his bodily sufferings. To have begun by speaking to him of religion and of his soul, would only have terrified him. Gellert seemed, therefore, entirely taken up with his illness, and the means of procuring him some alleviation to his sufferings. He assisted him as much as he could, and with the utmost attention and delicacy interested his friends in his behalf, and thus procured him the assistance and comforts required to calm his mind a little, and put him in a capacity of reflecting. Highly disgusting as was his illness, Gellert was continually with him, ever attentive to assist him, to amuse him, to alleviate his sufferings, and, above all, to let him see that tender sympathy, so consoling to the wretched, and which Gellert's eyes so well expressed.

By little and little, the sick man's heart softened; he became less ferocious, and, from regard to so good a friend, he moderated his transports, and the violence of his impatience. This sensibility to the friendship of an amiable and benevolent man, disposed him, by degrees, to that more noble and sublime love, with which Gellert sought to inspire him. The sick man began to possess himself, and soon came to reflect; from reflection he passed to repentance, and to sincere endeavours to moderate his desperation, to restrain his tongue, and to abstain from those horrible oaths, which had become so habitual to him. At length, he not only permitted but requested his friend to give him notice, when from the violence of pain, he was in danger of forgetting himself. From day to day, his perplexity, his anxiety concerning his future state, and his desire of still obtaining forgiveness from God, became more lively. Till then, he had ridiculed the ministers of the gospel; now, he earnestly wished to be instructed and consoled by them. He became more and more resigned to the will of God; his patience increased with his sufferings. He lived longer than was expected, and sometimes found himself so much relieved, that it seemed as if he might still indulge a hope of recovery. Gellert, in the mean time, had the joy of seeing the daily progress of his conversion. He left him only when his other indispensable duties obliged him to it, and applied his utmost, and unceasing care, to strengthen in the sick man's mind, on one side, the sense of his unworthiness, and abhorrence of his passed irregularities, and, on the other, the hope of obtaining mercy and forgiveness. This penitent sinner drew near his end. One day, when Gellert was alone

with him, and they were praying together, the sick man grew suddenly faint, seized the hand of his friend, blessed, and thanked him, recommended his soul to God, and expired. Gellert, surprised by a death so sudden and so calm, could hardly believe what he saw, and called for help; but, seeing his presence was now become useless, he withdrew, full of emotion, of joy, and of gratitude for the grace of God, which, he trusted, had made him instrumental to the salvation of an immortal soul.'

We shall now view the character of the Professor as an author. He wrote poetic fables, tales, and dramas:

'After publishing his first play, Gellert published the first volume of his tales and fables. The merit of these apologues is so plain and incontestable, that I might venture to affirm, that could we look into the judgment of posterity, we should find them to be ranked amongst the German classicks. They serve as amusements to youth, whose hearts we wish to form and whose taste we wish to improve. They have the suffrage of the female sex, which deviates least from nature, and which often forms as good a judgment from feeling, as we do from the rules of art. In a word, mothers rehearse them to their daughters, and the severest scholar would be ashamed to speak of them with indifference, or contempt. The choice of subjects, the moral, the style, all please, all do honour to the judgment, the understanding, and the heart of the poet. He does not rise so high as to be above the sight of the multitude, but he takes care not to descend so low as to escape the attention of good understandings.'

"My greatest ambition," said he, in a letter to a friend, "is to please and make myself useful to reasonable people, rather than to mere scholars.

"I attach more importance to the approbation of a sensible woman, than to the praises of a periodical paper; and, in my opinion, one of the populace, if he is endowed with a sound judgment, well deserves that I should seek to fix his attention, to contribute to his amusement, and in narratives easily retained, to set useful truths before him, fitted to excite good emotions in his soul."

'A poet so much the friend of mankind, must have experienced feelings the most agreeable, when in the beginning of one winter he saw a Saxon peasant drive up to his door, a cart loaded with firewood, who demanded of him himself, whether he was not the gentleman who composed such fine tales? On the answer he received, the peasant, joy sparkling in his eyes, with many excuses for the liberty he took, made Gellert a present of the contents of his car, as a feeble mark of his gratitude for the pleasure he had received from reading his tales. Beauties exist, which every one may feel without having studied Aristotle; and Gellert was more affected by the simple praise proceeding from a good heart, than he was disturbed by certain critics, who unjustly reproached him with having imitated La Fontaine. "People will have it," says Gellert, "that I have imitated La Fontaine, and I can assure them it is not true. I had friends able in criticism, for which I am much indebted to circumstances. Convinced of their knowledge, docile in following their advice,

advice, I corrected my works without murmuring; I had sense enough to wish only to write for persons of understanding, and in that consisted all my wisdom. I never was able to imitate, and this my writings sufficiently prove: they would often be better, had I known how to profit by the example of my predecessors."

In the subsequent passage, the biographer alludes to the present course of lectures; and we suspect that few who are engaged in public instruction can claim the tribute to which the conduct of Gellert, as here described, is intitled:

'Gellert was, especially, an excellent moralist for young people of distinction; because he attached himself, in his lessons, much more to useful subjects, requisite to be known to all men, and to be constantly present to their minds, than to new and extraordinary ideas; because, in treating points of morality, which are easily comprehended, but difficult in practice, he knew how to give them a charm, calculated to fix the attention of his auditors; because he taught morals philosophically, it is true, but, at the same time, so improved in the school of Christianity, as to be more luminous, and acquire more empire over the heart; finally, because, in expressing the most affecting gratitude towards religion, he pointed it out as the faithful guide through the paths of life.

'This new service done to the young academicians, added much to his celebrity; the merit of his writings had been its foundation; the zeal and talents, which made him a model for instructors, supported and augmented it. Few learned academies can boast of so numerous an audience as Gellert. It often consisted of four hundred persons, and sometimes more. But, it was not only in public that he made himself useful; he was so also in his familiar discourses with his disciples. His door was never shut to them; each of them had as free an access to him, as if he alone had been admitted to enjoy this favour. In these conversations, Gellert never assumed the air of a master, he conversed with these young people as with his friends; he listened to them, he studied their character, he spoke little, but all that he said was on mature reflection; in a word, his very silence was expressive, and calculated to instruct; and, perhaps, the professor's society was not less advantageous to his disciples, than even his lessons. He had such an ascendancy over the academical youth, and was so highly respected by them, that they abstained from libertinism and vice, only that they might not be deprived of the honour of being received at Gellert's, and of being noticed by him.'

Very unexpectedly, we are here introduced to a character who makes a splendid figure in the history of our times, but whom we now behold as the private individual. Unread himself, he courts the man of letters, and solicits the honour of his acquaintance; and the sketch of the *hero*, by the peaceful votary of the *muses*, cannot fail to arrest attention. It was at Carlsbad, from the waters of which they each sought relief for their several complaints, that these two persons met:

One of my first acquaintances, and also one of the most interesting, is General Laudon, a man of a singular character; serious, modest, a little melancholy, like me, talks little, like me, but expressing himself with sense and propriety; never speaking of his exploits, and seldom of his profession; he listens with attention, and you discover in his manner, and in his whole appearance, that propriety and amiable simplicity which reigns in his conversation. He is well made, without being tall; thin, but not so thin as I am; his cast of countenance is thoughtful, and his eyes, which are sunk in his head, of a bright grey, something like mine. It was by little and little that he came to converse familiarly with me, and I believe it was my melancholy air which procured me his confidence. "I should often seek you," said he to me, on meeting me one day in a private walk, "but that I fear being troublesome. Tell me, M. le Professeur," said he, one day, to me, "how is it possible you can have written so much, and infused so much gaiety into your works? To see you, one cannot well conceive it."—"I will explain this matter to you," replied I, "but first, M. le General, tell me, how is it possible that you can have gained the battle—the battle of Kunnersdorf, and taken Schweidnitz, in the space of one night? Seeing you, one cannot well conceive it." At this moment I saw him laugh, for the first time; he generally confines himself to a smile. He had informed himself exactly concerning my tastes; never invited me to his table but when he was alone; hardly ever had any thing served but light food; offered me no wine but my own; let me talk with unreserve, and conversed with me in the same manner; allowed me to withdraw soon after dinner; in a word, conformed himself almost entirely to my inclinations. I never heard him say any thing but what was good, and he always appeared to me to be religious. He wished me to chuse a little library for him; and much regretted not having attended to study. But, in truth, his natural penetration, and his spirit of observation, supplied his want of knowledge; moreover, he is very fond of reading. "What could I give you, which might be agreeable to you?" said he, to me, one day, "I wish I could know?" "M. le General," answered I, "in my circumstances, could you give me the whole university, the gift would be indifferent to me."—His nephew, a lieutenant in the regiment of Laudon, had communicated to me a desire of renewing his studies, and desired me to request his uncle's permission to pass a year at Leipsick. "Willingly," answered the General, "if you will allow him to be recommended to your care." When he wished to converse confidentially with me, he drew me from the company, to a retired walk, and then no one interrupted us. Our adieus were short. What I have just now said, I entrust to your probity. Farewell; you shall hear from me. Adieu, my dear General, may God protect and bless your days.

This excellent man, through the whole of his life, was the victim of ill health; which he bore with the meekness of the Christian, and the fortitude of a philosopher. If his views of religion were rather of the gloomy sort, rarely has she boasted of a disciple who displayed so much of her genuine spirit and salutary

salutary influence ! Rarely indeed have piety and a love of letters been so conspicuous in the same individual !

That we may now enable the reader to form a judgment of the contents of these volumes, we submit to his perusal a few extracts. We shall first select a passage in which the author illustrates the distinction between plausible and truly virtuous characters :

‘ Aristus is the declared enemy of avarice, because he loves society, and that his thoughtlessness rather leads to think of enjoying pleasure, than of giving himself the trouble to accumulate. He cannot understand how any one can be avaricious ; according to him it is decidedly to make ourselves ridiculous and hateful to every body, and to deprive us of the enjoyment of our fortune. He is as naturally liberal, as Harpagon, his brother, is inclined to the most sordid parsimony. Harpagon is universally hated, whilst Aristus’s liberality is generally applauded. One, however, is not really more virtuous than the other ; only Aristus’s passion is more convenient, more advantageous to others, but at the tribunal of reason, it is not a virtue. He is as eager after pleasure and consideration in the world, as our miser is of the metal which procures pleasures and attention. Let Aristus chuse between giving a hundred crowns towards the education of a poor orphan secretly, and without a possibility of gaining reputation by so doing, and spending the same sum in entertaining his friends, he will soon discover the real dispositions of his heart. After all we will suppose him, in fact, to be liberal and obliging : Yes, for he sets no value on money. He will with pleasure bestow a few crowns on any one, rather than subtract one hour from his amusements, if he is called on to assist some unfortunate person with advice, who applies to him for it. He is not avaricious, be it so, such is his nature : he is liberal, I allow it, such still is his nature. His inclination for pleasure cannot accord with avarice, and urges him to give liberally. Is sensuality then the source of virtue ?

‘ Prudentius is temperate in his use of food, moderate in his pleasures, and regular in his hours of sleep : but this is because he passionately loves money, and health, and life more than all. He would cease to be temperate if his stomach were more capable of digesting, if wine were less costly, and if he could possibly purchase an emancipation from illness. He takes care not to remain long at table, he knows that sitting too much is bad for the health ; whereas walking or going out in a carriage is a very wholesome exercise ; to this, therefore, he with pleasure gives up most of his time. He avoids being in a passion, he restrains himself, because passion would put his blood into a fermentation : but a malignant satisfaction arising from the ill success of others, is no source of ill health ; in this, therefore, he allows himself. You will seldom hear him speak ill of others, he fears to become an object of resentment ; but with how much pleasure will he not rally other people’s failings ? He finds something to laugh at in them, laughing enlivens him, and he feels the better for it. What signify to him, rank, titles, fame ? he only wishes to live at his ease ; and, to obtain vain glory, he will not act so as to shorten his days.

Prudentius, for all these reasons, imagines himself to be leading a very regular course of life, and in fact, it costs him not a little, so far to constrain himself; but who will believe this to be virtue in him, except himself who wishes to believe it, and those who are ignorant on what principle he acts. His virtue, his sovereign good, is money, health, and life. But is he then to enjoy good health, and long life, merely to live long and be healthy? Or have life and health no higher aims? Why then is he not temperate with a view to preserve the superiority of his faculties, both mental and corporeal, to make use of them as well as of his time for the advantage of society, for his own advantage in labouring after his own happiness, and from a principle of obedience to God?

Erastus applies himself indefatigably to his commercial affairs: but has no object in view but to leave a great fortune to his children, and give consequence to his house. He does not allow himself in means the least improper to obtain this; it would be losing his credit, and exposing himself to be deprived of the blessing of Heaven. Nothing can equal his honesty and integrity: he tears himself from sleep to pursue his speculations, and he lives frugally that he may work more assiduously, at his desk. The most innocent recreations might make him neglect an occasion of gaining some lawful advantage; he prohibits himself from them entirely. His reputation is so well established, that he is cited as an example of a conscientious and laborious man, who sacrifices his life and his pleasure to his duty. But by what law is he obliged thus to give himself up to his commercial business, to enrich and aggrandize his family? A good education is preferable to riches, and he takes no pains to procure it to his children. The duty of accumulating wealth for them, is it not very inferior to that of watching carefully over their conduct, and that of all his household? After having slaved during fifty years at a laborious employment, which has not had a more elevated object in view than the enriching his family, what will he have done at the end of his life to enoble and bring his soul to perfection? To shrink from no kind of fatigue and anxiety, to leave a more considerable inheritance to children, and to aggrandize them, may be called vanity or natural affection, but never can be esteemed virtue.

It is precisely by an effect of the attachment we have for ourselves, and for what belongs to us, that we so easily falsify and obscure our ideas of virtue, by giving this name to whatever procures us some lawful advantage, or which preserves us from the loss of health, of reputation, and of our well being in this life. We often think ourselves labouring in the cause of virtue, when, in fact, we are only employed in satisfying our passions. We become different from what we were, without being at all better or more religious.

Every man, then, who wishes to be convinced of the value of virtue, must *know it*, form to himself ideas of *his duty from the holy and immutable will of God*, and compare his ideas and the divine will together, that he may estimate them justly; otherwise on a thousand occasions he will be unable to triumph over himself, and the most he will obtain will be the pomp of virtue. He must labour to renew and fortify his conviction, by silent reflection in retirement, and by exercising

exercising himself, each day, in well doing; he must apply himself to purify his knowledge, and to clear it from those errors which imperceptibly mix with it. Thus the intelligent man will encrease his information, whilst he who is without understanding, the scoffer who flies from labour and application, and who occupies himself seldom, and inattentively, in the search of wisdom, *will not be able to find it.*

The ability, which distinguishes M. Gellert's directions for the attainment of eminent moral worth, may be appreciated by the rules which we take from his seventh moral lesson:

'First, *Never begin any day without recollecting what are your occupations.* Assiduity is a duty, but it is also a happiness for you; make it then a pleasing necessity to yourself by exercising it, and by proposing virtue to yourself for your object. Apply yourself to study in the view of becoming a good man and useful to society, and congratulate yourself on possessing those talents, the good use of which is nearly connected with your happiness. Hitherto you have no employment, but the business of a youth is to fit himself for the employment he will one day be engaged in. To make a profitable use of time, of your opportunities, of the faculties of your soul and body, these are your present business. It is a very important function with which God has already charged you through the medium of your reason. Acquit yourself of it with zeal and fidelity, and be satisfied when you can testify to yourself, that you have done so at the end of each day, even supposing your application should not be attended with all the success you might desire, or that your genius and your progress in the sciences should not be equal to that of your companions in study. Your assiduity ought not to confine itself to making you more learned, but it must principally have in view, to make you a patient, laborious, conscientious young man, content with your condition, such as you may one day be in riper years, in old age, and in every period of your life, that it may be your protection from the dangers of idleness and vice. Employ yourself from the first of the morning in these thoughts, my dear Orestes, and let this idea of duty be to you as a guardian angel, to conduct you to labour, and to direct you in your occupations.

'Secondly, *Think on the recreations you may enjoy in the course of the day.* Say to yourself, shall I use them with moderation to gather from them new strength? Shall I enjoy them with thankfulness? Will it encrease my satisfaction to share them with others? Shall I know how to get the better of myself, if a taste for sensual pleasures solicits me to the commission of some excess? How shall I reap advantage from the comforts of society and friendship? Shall I be able to restrain myself from levity in my discourse, to season and temper the sallies of raillery? Shall I speak as I think, as a man of probity, and shall I be sincere without being indiscreet?

'Thirdly, *How am I to govern myself in regard to temptations, more or less powerful, to which I may be exposed?* I love to please, shall I in the course of the day procure to myself this advantage by flattery? I am given to raillery, shall I lay myself under no restraint on this subject?



subject? I may hear of some happy event which may form the happiness of another, shall I have greatness of mind enough to rejoice at it? Shall I think nobly enough not to envy it, even had it happened to one whom I know to be my enemy? I feel my temper sometimes disposed to be peevish and humourous, shall I this day endeavour to hinder it from appearing? Shall I bear the faults of others, as I wish them to bear mine? I easily allow myself to be heated by anger in conversation: I will carefully abstain from this. Shall I take pleasure in female society, so as that neither their beauty, nor the charms of their conversation may become a snare to me, and that I may not carry from it any disposition which I should be unwilling to own to the man I most respect?

‘Fourthly, *Disagreeable events and misfortunes may befall me.* Am I careful at the beginning of the day, to arm myself with courage, with patience, with submission to the wise decrees of Providence?

‘I am mortal, yet destined to immortality. God is the disposer of my days. Perhaps their termination is not far off. Shall I be terrified at the idea? No: as long as I acquit myself of my duty, death is to me the beginning of a happiness, to the acquirement of which I joyfully consecrate my life, without fearing either its end or its prolongation. Perhaps some friend may offend me through weakness, more than from any deliberate design, shall I have indulgence for him? Some blow may be given to my reputation. I cannot be insensible to this: but still ought not I to esteem myself happy if I have not deserved it? Perhaps my health may suffer some attack. Shall I know how to moderate the uneasiness this may occasion me?

‘Fifthly, *What thoughts shall employ my mind in solitude?* Probably reflections on what motives are best calculated to encourage me in the practice of some duty, which might appear to me to be difficult; on some sublime truth of religion, capable of elevating and strengthening the soul; on some passage in the writings of a poet or an orator, which may afford me an useful lesson, and lead me to act more conscientiously, inspire me with more affection for my fellow-creatures, and make me combat vice with more resolution. None of my retired and leisure moments shall be allowed to pass, without my meditating on the wonders of nature which heaven and earth display to my sight; without my being penetrated with gratitude on viewing the multiplicity of blessings bestowed on us by God; without admiring the striking appearances of his Providence, which supports and directs all things, and without representing strongly to my own mind death, judgment, and eternity, and drawing from thence principles of wisdom and contentment. Shall I not occupy myself in promoting the happiness of others, assist them with my advice, employ my mediation when requisite in their behalf, or at least, compassionate their sufferings? Shall I not deeply imprint on my mind that virtue is the most precious gift of Heaven, that it may and ought to constitute my happiness, and that it is not morose, even when it exacts the greatest efforts?

If it be the reader's object to be surprized by subtil refinements, and fine-spun reasonings on points of morals, these

volumes will not fulfil his wishes : but, if it will gratify him to behold virtue drawn in an amiable and attractive light, and if it be his desire to have all the passions of his soul and all the energies of his nature engaged in its cause, he will set a high value on the labours of Professor Gellert : which, even under their present transmutation, retain much of the character of easy and flowing compositions.—We ought perhaps to mention that this version was undertaken by Mrs. Douglas for the benefit of her *adopted* grandson ; and we can truly add that the design does honour to her judgment, since it was not easy to devise a better method of beneficially affecting his destinies in all their extent, than by giving to a work of so excellent a tendency a paramount claim on his attention.

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ART. II. *A Dissertation on Gout* ; exhibiting a new View of the Origin, Nature, Cause, Cure, and Prevention, of that afflicting Disease ; illustrated and confirmed by a variety of original and communicated Cases. By Robert Kinglake, M. D., Member of the Royal Medical Society of Edinburgh, of the Physical Society of Gottingen, &c. &c. and Physician at Taunton. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Murray.

MANY diseases unhappily exist which the physician finds it impossible to conquer, in spite of all the resources of his art ; and there are some few which he does not wish to cure, from an idea that the removal of the present would be productive of a more fatal evil. In this latter predicament, stands the Gout ; which, by the almost unanimous consent of medical practitioners, has been considered as a salutary effort of the constitution to throw off some greater impending mischief ; and consequently the utmost that it is deemed allowable to attempt is to moderate the violence of particular symptoms, or to confine the disease to certain parts of the body. This opinion had been forcibly called in question by Dr. Heberden in his Medical Commentaries, who argued with much ability against the popular doctrine on this subject : but it was reserved for Dr. Kinglake to unravel the whole mystery ; to shew ' that Gout differs in no essential circumstance from common inflammation ; that it is not a constitutional, but merely a local affection ; that its genuine seat is exclusively in the ligamentous and tendinous structure ; that its attack is never salutary ; that it should neither be encouraged nor protracted ; and that, if seasonably and appropriately treated, it is as easily remediable as inflammatory excitement on the muscular, cuticular, or any other description of organic texture.' Hence it would appear that our author has not only discovered a mode of practice adequate

quate to the removal of this deplorable disease, but that he has also been so peculiarly fortunate as to strike out a new and satisfactory theory to account for its phenomena, and to guide us in the application of our remedies.

Section I. though intitled '*origin of gout*,' seems to have no connection with the subject, but principally consists of declamation respecting the prejudices which are always entertained against those who attempt to introduce improvements into medicine.

The 2d section, on the '*nature and constitution of gout*,' enters more fully into the question, and gives the author ample scope for developing his hypothesis, and displaying his reasoning powers. He properly begins by a definition of the disease. 'Gout is a greater or less degree of inflammatory affection of the ligaments and tendons, induced by distempered excitability of those parts from various causes.' Our readers will observe that Dr. Kinglake includes the cause of gout in the definition of it; a plan which might lead a less enlightened pathologist into innumerable errors, in consequence of our acknowledged ignorance respecting the causes of disease.—As a farther elucidation of the definition, we are informed that the true nature of Gout 'consists of active inflammation, assuming every diversity which constitutional and temperamental conditions of life and health may impart to it.' We felt somewhat startled at a definition of Gout which seemed to place its essence in inflammation alone, and did not discriminate it from the other species of inflammation to which the joints are liable; and we were preparing to notice this deficiency, when, on a farther perusal, we discovered that this really is the doctrine maintained by the author. As our readers will probably be not less surprised than we were at this singular notion, we shall quote the entire paragraph, in order that they may be convinced that we neither misrepresent nor exaggerate:

'Different degrees of inflammatory affection of the ligaments and tendons have been erroneously supposed to be essentially distinct diseases, and have accordingly received such respective denominations, as have been held to be appropriate: thus an inflammation on those parts, arising from general causes, is at one time distinguished by the term rheumatism; at another, when the inflammatory irritation has resulted from external violence, particularly that of extension, it is named sprain. It will require no extraordinary skill in independent thinking, to perceive the perfect identity of these several nominal states of inflammation, and to refuse assent to the prevailing prejudice, that they are essentially different.'

By 'independent thinking,' Dr. Kinglake must mean thinking independent of reason and experience, for in no other way

can we account for the singularity of his opinions on this subject. Let us, however, candidly hear the grounds on which this speculation is founded :

‘ Experience bears ample testimony to the extreme difficulty of applying the prevailing ground of distinction between gout and rheumatism. Medical practitioners are often inextricably perplexed with the diagnostic phantom of gout and rheumatism. In consultation it becomes a subject of awful discussion. The irascible and bigotted are apt to dissent violently, sometimes indeed opprobriously ; the demure more gravely : whilst the polite conformist compromises the difficulty, by denominating it rheumatic gout. Such puerilities surely are unworthy of medical science, and should not be tolerated in a philosophical age.’

It appears, then, that Dr. Kinglake finds it difficult to distinguish Rheumatism from Gout, and that sometimes these diseases are thought to be combined ; on which account, to prevent any future uncertainty on the subject, he boldly pronounces them to be the same disease. This is a very summary kind of nosology, and may be convenient ; yet we fear that it will scarcely be tolerated in this ‘ philosophical age.’

The author not only contends for the identity of Gout and Rheumatism, but for that of every other inflammation of a ligament or tendon, even though induced by external violence :

‘ The inflammation induced on the ligaments and tendons by external violence, and which is significantly termed sprain, discovers as strong an identity with gouty irritation, as occurs in rheumatic affection. The same parts are subjected to inflammatory excitement, and the same effects are consequently manifested. Exquisite pain, immobility of the affected joint, efflorescence, shining tumefaction, associative affection of other joints, and more or less of systematic irritation, at once characterize ligamentous and tendinous extension, called sprain, and present an imposing catalogue of either gouty or rheumatic symptoms.’

It will, however, be immediately asked by every person, how does the hypothesis of the author account for the affection of the stomach, which is generally conceived to be as essential to Gout as the inflammation of the limbs ? Dr. Kinglake shall answer for himself :

‘ Constitutional gout would presuppose constitutional fabric of ligament and tendon, in a state of inflammatory action from excessive excitement. The physical conditions, or requisite structure, therefore, to give effect to what is strictly understood by gouty inflammation, can only be found in the joints. What is erroneously termed gout in the system, is no more than distempered excitability, whether occurring originally or symptomatically, which may be concentrated or determined on the articular fabric, where it may be considered as an aggravation of the disease, by increasing the previous degree of painful irritation, and in no instance to be remedial.’

In

In plain language, the Doctor defines gout to be an inflammation in the ligaments or tendons: but the stomach has no ligament, nor tendon; therefore the stomach can never be affected by gout. Notwithstanding, however, that he may be led by his peculiar hypothesis to suppose that *Gout* cannot exist in the stomach, yet certainly he must admit that a state of this organ is induced, by whatever name it may be called, which is highly dangerous, and often fatal. He is not, however, so soon daunted; and he boldly asserts that 'visceral participation in gouty excitement loses its ideal terror, by rejecting the groundless prejudice by which its quality and danger have been estimated.'

Proceeding on the idea that gout is merely an inflammation of the ligaments and tendons, possessing nothing specific in its nature or character, Dr. K. next describes the effects which it produces on the diseased part; and, among other circumstances, he explains at some length the manner in which the substances called chalk-stones are formed. As far as we can detect his meaning, from under the cloud of words in which it is veiled, he appears to imagine that the vessels, which bring the bony matter to the joints, are compelled to discharge their contents on the surface, in consequence of the inflamed state of the neighbouring parts. We have, however, one objection to urge against this ingenious speculation; viz. that the matter, of which chalk-stones consist, is composed of the lithic acid and soda; whereas the earth of bones is composed of phosphoric acid and lime. Perhaps Dr. K. may have discovered some method of converting the phosphate of lime into the lithate of soda, but this is not stated in the work before us.—We close our notice of this section by quoting the account of the nature of inflammation, which, says Dr. K. 'is a sort of combustive state of vital motion, and may be aptly compared to fire, which, with whatever fuel kindled, burns with identical heat.' The reader will, no doubt, be at a loss to decide whether he should most admire the perspicuity or the eloquence of this passage.

The 3d section relates to the '*remote and proximate cause of gout.*' Rejecting the idea of there being any thing specific in its nature, Dr. K. remarks that 'the sanctioned doctrines of medical schools, as well as popular prejudice, would consider an attempt to assimilate the effects of a sprained joint with gout, as but little short of sacrilegious innovation; as trifling with the holy mystery of inscrutable disease, and rendering great things little indeed. Such declamation may be sounding, but it is nonsensical, without either point or authority, without any just regard for true science and its liberal investigation.'

tion.'—Since the Doctor considers the disease as a simple inflammation of the part, possessed of no peculiar characteristics, we did not expect to find that he admits it to be hereditary; yet such we apprehend to be the meaning of the following paragraph, when stripped of its superfluous coat of *verbiage*:

'However gouty inflammation may have been repeatedly produced, whether by external violence, the gradual formation of altered structure, or local excess of distempered excitability on the ligamentous, tendinous, and fascial parts, the morbid changes induced, will at length become so radically influential in the motive powers of the system, as to generate a transmittable state of temperamental susceptibility for morbid affection. The offspring in such diseased circumstances, will possess constitutional powers equal to the ordinary functions of health, but yet accompanied with a temperamental disposition to the disease. In these instances, gouty excitability may be said to be hereditary.'

Among the causes of gout, we were surprized to meet with what is elegantly styled, 'plenitude resulting from dietetic excess;' for though every one, either medical or unmedical, knows this to be the case, yet it is so absolutely contrary to the idea of the state of the stomach being only remotely connected with the disease, that we concluded that this circumstance would have been overlooked.

At length, we arrive at the proximate cause of gout: but this we shall not presume to lay before the reader except in the words of the author; and indeed, for a reason which will be sufficiently obvious, we could not convey it in any others:

'This efficiency or proximate cause, by which the disease is constituted, consists in an agitated and an increased degree of vital or repulsive motion in the affected part.'

We subjoin the author's explanation of vital motion:

'By vital motion is meant a repellency, subsisting between the constituent particles of all matter. This innate power or property is, by a law of nature, spontaneously evolved from atomical surfaces, and assumes character and determinal force, when issuing from the congenies, or combination of material substances, which forms specific or particular structure.'

To some of our readers, we fear, this will be "confusion worse confounded."—The speculation appears to be so completely novel, that we shall indulge in a farther quotation, in which Dr. Kinglake seems to have concentrated all his force:

'The exertion of this universally repellent power, in the organic fabric of the animal economy, is life, or vital motion. The action of this power denotes itself in animal feeling as heat; an undistinguishable

able identity, therefore, with respect to the object, subsists between what has been variously denominated repulsive motion, vital action, and heat. These several modes of the same thing arise from the different circumstances, in which it is operative. Repulsive motion is the natural efficiency of matter, and universally pervades every conceivable atom; vital motion is the organic efficiency of matter, and heat is the impression only, which that power makes on animal sensation.'

If these paragraphs possess any meaning, it is that the accumulation of caloric in the diseased part constitutes the immediate cause of gout; and the author congratulates himself on the very happy method in which the theory and practice correspond, 'unique indeed in the catalogue of diseases.' If the disease be caused by the accumulation of heat, the obvious way of removing it is by the application of cold; and indeed the proposal of this remedy constitutes the principal object, and certainly the only merit of the performance.

In the 4th section, on the '*cure of gout*,' the plan of treatment which was before intimated is more completely developed; and it consists in the universal and unqualified recommendation of cold, particularly of cold water, to the inflamed part. To the affections of the stomach, the author attaches so little importance in the theory of the disease, that we were not surprized at his neglecting them in the plan of cure. Dr. Kinglake cannot be accused of inconsistency; considering all topical inflammations as being radically the same, he advises the same remedies for them all, and feelingly laments the prejudices of those who adopt a different treatment:

'It is on this crooked principle, that scalds and burns are attempted to be remedied by exposure to fire, and the application of spirit of turpentine; that sprains are treated with stimulant applications; that recent incisions, and contusions, are washed with spirituous embrocations; and that gangrenous inflammation is subjected to the excitant impression of effervescing and fermentative poultices.'

Section V. on the '*prevention of gout*,' is principally devoted to a recommendation of temperance; and we perfectly agree with the author in the propriety of this advice, though we feel at a loss to know in what manner it can be reconciled with the former part of his doctrine.—In the 6th section, we have a '*Recapitulation*,' in the form of propositions; in which he still more distinctly states his ideas of the local nature of gout, and of the identity of all the different kinds of inflammation. We shall quote the 26th proposition, because it explains in a singularly luminous manner the peculiarities of Dr. Kinglake's hypothesis:

'The

\* The proximate cause of gout is the aggregate efficiency of the remote causes, or the disease itself. It is founded in an excess of heat or repulsive motion generated and evolved from simple and compound atomical surfaces: thus perfect identity with respect to the object subsists between the various denominations, repulsive motion, vital action, and heat. Repulsive motion obtains universally between atoms or corpuscles; vital motion in organic structure; and heat is the impression, or effect, which this repulsive motion makes on the sensorial principle of the animal economy. The excess of heat, then, is the proximate cause of gouty excitement; and consequently its due reduction, its direct, speedy, and effectual cure.\*

To the body of the work is affixed a copious Appendix, consisting of a number of cases which have been treated in the manner here suggested; many of them furnished by respectable practitioners. It would lead us far beyond our accustomed limits to enter into a minute examination of these cases: but we must observe that, for the most part, they undoubtedly record but slight attacks, and such as it might be supposed would have subsided without any remedies. Some few of them, however, were of more moment; and we think that they justify us in advising that the application of cold should be *cautiously* tried, though we cannot assent to the *unqualified* manner in which it is urged by the author; which we regard as *highly dangerous*.

With respect to the execution of this work, we need say but little. Our readers may judge, from the specimens that have been given, as well of Dr. Kinglake's talent at theorizing as of the nature of his style; both are indeed extremely objectionable. We condemn still more, however, the arrogant and illiberal spirit which is manifested against all those who presume to differ from the author, and to conceive that gout and rheumatism are not the same disease, or that gout may attack the stomach. A man who undertakes to subvert opinions which have been adopted for ages, should admit the possibility, at least, that all the world may be right, and that he himself is in an error.

Some pamphlets on this subject will appear in the Medical class of the *Catalogue* part of this Review.



ART. III. *System of Mineralogy*, comprehending Oryctognosie, Geognosie, Mineralogical Chemistry, Mineralogical Geography, and Economical Mineralogy. By Robert Jameson, Regius Professor of Natural History, and Keeper of the Museum in the University of Edinburgh, &c. &c. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 662. 14s. Boards. Constable and Co., Edinburgh; Longman and Co., London.

WE have frequently had occasion to remark, that the scientific arrangement of fossil substances has by no means acquired that degree of precision and that consistency which have so much facilitated the study of botany and zoology. The subjects of the mineral kingdom are, in fact, less susceptible of accurate discrimination than plants or animals, of which the peculiar modes of organization present clear and distinct characters. Unfortunately, also, the spirit of theory has mingled with the most celebrated attempts to establish a permanent nomenclature; and divisions have been instituted and multiplied without any proper basis of arrangement.

The distribution by crystals possesses the advantage of geometrical precision in all cases to which its principles extend: but many of the compound substances, which are not crystallized, are unavoidably thrown into an Appendix; several even of the crystallized sorts have integrant molecules of the same figure: while others, composed of the very same constituents, present us with different molecules. It may be added that few individuals can bestow that leisure and that minuteness of investigation, which the science of crystallography demands of its votaries.

The Wernerian method is at least more plausible and comprehensive, because it proceeds chiefly on the distinctions of external characters; thus including, in some one of its genera, species, or varieties, a definition of every known mineral substance. On a nearer inspection, however, and in its practical applications, this boasted instrument of the Freyberg school is found to be far from simple, and very inadequate to the purposes of its destination. The vagueness of many of the characters, and the geological assumptions on which some of the leading distinctions are founded, consitute, in our apprehension, very serious objections to its general adoption.

Professor Jameson, nevertheless, at no ordinary expence of zeal and diligence, and undismayed by obstacles, seems firmly resolved to promulgate in his native country the cumbersome catalogues and descriptions of his German master. A neat outline of Werner's system might, as an object of scientific curiosity, form an acceptable present to the English public: but its heavy exposition, detailed in several massy octavos, will

will probably repel the most intrepid readers. In spite of the dreariness of the task, we should consider ourselves as required to present a succinct analysis of the present portion of Mr. Jameson's lucubrations, did it not in a great measure coincide, if not in elegance of execution, yet in matter and arrangement, with the first volume of Brochant's work, which we have already noticed\*.

The Professor, in his preface, gives a short and rather uninteresting sketch of some of the most celebrated mineralogists. The names, however, are not always set down in chronological order, and an obvious anachronism occurs relative to the publications of Bromel and Becker. The Introduction presents us with a summary view of the system; and it is followed by a tabular catalogue, in which we remark several material omissions, and some very unnecessary singularities in orthography.

Agreeably to the Wernerian plan, Mr. Jameson divides his subject into four classes; viz. earthy fossils, fossil salts, inflammable fossils, and metallic fossils: of which the first only is included in the present volume. The Genera which are explained are denominated Diamond, Zircon, Flint, Clay, Talc, Calc, Baryte, and Strontiane.

A single extract, which we select at random, will shew the author's manner of treating the species and the *sub-species*—an awkward category, which frequently occurs in the Wernerian classification. The seventh species under the Clay Genus is Felspar; or, as the author remarks, more properly Feldspar:

\* Feldspath.—*Werner*.

\* This species is divided by Werner into four subspecies, 1. Compact felspar, 2. Common felspar, 3. Adularia, 4. Labrador stone.

#### \* FIRST SUBSPECIES.

\* Compact Felspar.

\* Dichter Feldspath.—*Werner*.

\* *Id. Wid.* p. 345.—Continuous felspar, *Kirw.* vol. 1. p. 323.—Felsite, *Id.* p. 326.—Dichter feldstein, *Eisner*, b. 2. s. 511. *Id. Emm.* b. 1. s. 271.—Felspatto compatto, *Nap.* p. 218.—Feldspath compacte bleu, *Hauy*, t. 2. p. 615.—Le feldspatch compacte, *Broch.* t. 1. p. 367.

\* *External Characters.*

\* Its colours are grey, white, blue, green, and red. The varieties of white are greenish and greyish white: Of grey, greenish smoke and ash grey; from greenish grey it passes into apple green, pistacio green, even into mountain green; further into sky blue and small blue; it occurs also flesh red and blood red.

\* See Rev. Vol. xlii. N. S. p. 463. *Appendix.*

‘ Occurs massive, disseminated, in rolled pieces, and in crystals which are imbedded in antique green porphyry.

‘ Internally its lustre is sometimes glistening, sometimes glimmering.

‘ Fracture at first sight appears to be only splintery, but when carefully examined we find it also to be very fine grained, or imperfectly and very small foliated.

‘ Fragments indeterminately angular, and not particularly sharp edged.

‘ It sometimes presents fine grained distinct concretions.

‘ Translucent, but sometimes only on the edges.

Pretty hard, but in a low degree.

Easily frangible.

Not particularly heavy.

‘ *Chemical Character.*

‘ It is fusible without addition before the blow pipe.

‘ *Geognostic Situation.*

‘ It is one of the constituent parts of primitive, transition, and feldspathic greenstone, also of greenstone slate, and is imbedded in crystals in antique porphyry.

‘ *Geographic Situation.*

‘ It is found in Saxony, the Tyrol, Carinthia; in Scotland, at the Pentland hills and Salisbury crags near Edinburgh; Coriarrich in Invernesshire, and many other places.

‘ *Observations.*

‘ On account of its splintery fracture, and slight degree of lustre, it used to be considered as a variety of hornstone; even the late intelligent Mr. Dolomieu continued to name it petrosilex. Werner considers it as a subspecies of felspar, because 1. It occurs most generally along with quartz and mica, thus assuming as it were the place of common felspar. 2. It has combined with the splintery a foliated fracture. 3. It passes into common felspar. 4. It occurs crystallized in antique green porphyry. 5. It melts without addition before the blow pipe.

‘ SECOND SUBSPECIES.

‘ Common Felspar.

‘ Gemeiner Feldspath.—*Werner.*

‘ Werner divides it into two kinds: *a.* Fresh felspar, *b.* Disintegrated felspar.

‘ FIRST KIND.

‘ Fresh felspar.

‘ Frischer feldspath.—*Werner.*

*Spathum scintillans*, *Wall.* t. 1. p. 214.—Feldspath, *Wid.* p. 335.

‘ *Ibid.* *R. d. L.* t. 2. p. 445.—Common felspar, *Kirw.* vol. 1. p.

316.—Blättrig Feldstein, *Estner*, b. 1. s. 513. Gemeiner feldspath,

*Emm.* b. 1. s. 266.—Feldspath commune, *Nap.* p. 213.—Feld-

spath, *Lam.* t. 2. p. 187, *Ibid.* *Hauy*, t. 2. p. 590.—Le Feldspath commun. *Broch.* t. 1. p. 362.

‘ *External*

*External Characters.*

Its colours are white, red, grey, and green. Of white it presents the following varieties; greyish, milk, yellowish, greenish, and reddish white: the greyish white rarely passes into smoke grey and blueish grey. Of red the following varieties occur, flesh, blood, and sometimes verges on brick red. From greenish white it passes into asparagus green, leek green, mountain green, even into verdegria green, but this latter is a rare variety.

The greenish white variety borders on adularia, and the edges have a reddish shade.

It occurs most commonly massive, disseminated, in angular pieces, in rolled pieces, and grains; also frequently crystallized. The following are its principal figures.

1. Broad six-sided prism, nearly equally bevelled on both extremities, and the bevilling planes set on those lateral edges which are formed by the smaller lateral planes. Sometimes the acute lateral edges are truncated, sometimes also bevelled; the obtuse edges are also in some instances truncated.
2. Very oblique four-sided prism, flatly bevelled on the extremities, and the bevilling planes set on the obtuse lateral edges. When the prism becomes short, and two obliquely opposite bevilling planes increase so much as to cause the others to disappear, a rhomboid is formed.
3. Rectangular four-sided prism, acuminated by four planes which are set on the lateral edges; the summit of the acuminations and lateral edges of the prism are sometimes truncated.

The crystals occur sometimes in twin crystals, and sometimes scalar-wise aggregated.

The twin crystals are formed in different ways; one variety is conceived to be formed by two crystals being side-wise pushed into each other; and in another, or what has been called hemitrope, the crystal is supposed to be divided into two, and one half turned completely around and applied to the other, so that a re-entering angle is formed at the one extremity, and a salient angle at the other.

The crystals are small and middle sized, (particularly the four and six-sided prisms) often all around crystallised in druses.

Externally its lustre is shining; internally the principal fracture is shining approaching to splendid, cross fracture is glimmering, and both are vitreous, inclining a little to pearly.

Fracture more or less perfectly straight foliated, two-fold cleavage, and the folia cross each other at right angles. Cross fracture fine grained uneven, passing into splintery; parallel with this fracture we observe rents that cut the other cleavages obliquely, so that the fragments are somewhat rhomboidal. Sometimes the foliated is a little curved foliated, and is seldom floriformly foliated, which passes into a kind of diverging broad radiated.

Occurs in large, coarse, and small grained distinct concretions.

More or less translucent.

Pretty hard\*.

\* Scratches glass.—Hauy.

K 3

Brittle.

Brittle.

Easily frangible.

Not particularly heavy.

\* Specific gravity—From 2,272 to 2,594.—According to Haug, from 2,4378 to 2,7045.

\* For the geognostic and geographic characters see the end of the following description.

\* *Chemical Characters.*

\* It melts without addition before the blowpipe into a white glass.

\* *Constituent Parts.*

Silica	62,83	64,0	67,0	43,0	79,0	70
Alumina	17,02	21,0	14,0	37,05	16,0	12
Lime	3,00	6,25		1,70	2,3	
Oxyd of Iron	1,00	2,0		4,0		
Potash	13,00					
Baryt			11,0			8
Magnesia			8,0			9
Loss		3,75				
	96,85		100	85,72	97,3	99
	<i>Vauquelin.</i>	<i>Chemnitz.</i>	<i>Kirwan.</i>	<i>Sauvure.</i>	<i>Meyer.</i>	<i>Hauksf.</i>

\* **SECOND KIND,**

\* Disintegrated felspar.

\* Aufgelöster feldspath.—*Werner.*

\* Its colour is yellowish and reddish white, which sometimes verges on grey.

\* Occurs massive, disseminated, and in imbedded crystals, resembling in figure those of fresh felspar.

\* Internally its lustre alternates between glistening, glimmering, and dull.

\* Fracture in some varieties is imperfectly foliated, passing into earthy; in others it is intermediate between uneven, which approaches to splintery, and earthy.

\* Fragments indeterminate angular, blunt edged.

\* It has a tendency to distinct concretions, but this only when it is passing to fresh.

\* Only a little translucent on the edges, generally opaque.

\* Soft, passing into very soft: also semi-hard

Easily frangible.

Not particularly heavy.

\* *Observations.*

\* 1. The disintegrated condition of this kind of felspar is owing in many instances to weathering; but it is also highly probable that it is often originally formed in a similar state.

\* 2. It is the link which connects felspar with porcelain clay.

\* \* Vauquelin's experiments were made on the green coloured Siberian felspar.

\* 3. We

'3. We observe a diminishing fusibility from common felspar through disintegrated felspar to porcelain clay, which depends, according to Werner, on the relative proportion of alkali in each.

*' Geognostic Situation of common felspar.*

' It is one of the most abundant of fossils. It forms a constituent part of granite and gneiss; it occurs also in sienite, in greenstone, and in imbedded crystals in porphyry, basalt, and porphyry slate. It also occurs in beds and kidneys in primitive mountains, and in veins of the oldest formation.

*' Geographic Situation of common felspar.*

' It is so universally distributed that we shall only mention the localities of a few of the most remarkable varieties. The beautiful green coloured variety is found in Siberia; the twin crystals are found very fine at Baveno, and near to Carsbad in Bohemia; the floriformly foliated in Saxony and the island of Arran; the curved foliated in Sweden, and it is found in uncommonly large distinct concretions in the island of Rona, one of the Hebrides.'

This quotation is less deformed than many passages which might be specified, with errors of the press and phrases of peculiar harshness. What ear, that is tuned to the harmony of the English language, can patiently endure such uncouth combinations of terms as the following?—*not particularly difficultly frangible; a perfect obliquely intersecting threefold cleavage; acuminate on both extremities by three planes, that are unconformably-acute set on the alternate lateral planes; parallelly double, and spongiform circularly cellular, fortification-wise bent lamellar distinct concretions; fracture delicately and coarsely promiscuous fibrous, and narrow; scopiformly diverging radiated; seldom parallelly radiated; scalar-wise; scopiformly, and globularly aggregated, &c. &c.* We are by no means enamoured of the author's darling terms *Geognosie* and *Oryctognosie*; nor of the many rugged and motley epithets which he intersperses, and which, we trust, will not be allowed to pass as current English.

Yet, whatever may be the Professor's disregard of style and composition, we may, in most instances, rely on the accuracy of his statements. We wish, however, that he had not so confidently repeated his master's errors relative to the matrix of ruby, zircon, and spinelle; and that he had not asserted, in such unqualified terms, that the aqueous origin of basalt is now *universally admitted*. His list of localities is peculiarly meagre and deficient. The mystery with which he affects to mention the aluminous schistus at Whitby, our common fuller's earth, and the alum quarries at Tolfa, borders on the ludicrous. Many of the modifications and improvements of which his favourite system is susceptible, and which have been proposed or adopted by able mineralogists, are passed over un-

noticed; and names justly dear to science are too often thrown into the shade. In the future stages of the publication, it will afford us sincere satisfaction, if we can assure the public that Mr. Jameson's correctness, elegance, and candour are not inferior to his zeal and industry. Of his genius and intellect, we should have augured more favourably, if, instead of hugging the fetters of an unwieldy system, he had devised a method of his own; constructed on principles more simple and philosophical, and less connected with preconceived opinions.

**ART. IV. *Surgical Observations, &c.*** By John Abernethy, F.R.S., Assistant Surgeon to St. Bartholomew's Hospital, &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co.

**T**HE zeal which Mr. Abernethy has exhibited in the improvement of his profession, and the great degree of success with which his exertions have been crowned, caused us to take up this volume with high expectations; and we can assure our readers that those expectations have not been disappointed. His observations are marked with that precision which can only be attained by an original observer; and the whole exhibits a display of judgment and candor, which indicate not merely great professional skill, but a well-stored and comprehensive understanding.

In the first part of the work, however, which consists of 'an attempt to form a classification of tumors according to their anatomical structure,' Mr. Abernethy commences by a definition of these substances; on which, as conveying an idea different from that which is generally adopted, we must take the liberty of making some observations. He says: "I shall restrict the surgical signification of the word "Tumour" to such swellings as arise from some new production, which made no part of the original composition of the body; and by this means I shall exclude all simple enlargements of bones, joints, glands, &c." This definition appears to us in many respects objectionable; it involves an hypothesis respecting the formation of tumors; it establishes a criterion of their existence which it must be in many, perhaps in most cases, impossible to employ in actual practice; and it separates from each other, diseases that require the same treatment and remedies. Mr. Abernethy derives his hypothesis respecting the formation of tumors from an observation made by Mr. Hunter, concerning the origin of such as are of a pendulous structure; in which, a portion of coagulated blood remaining attached to the surface by a slender neck, and the neighbouring vessels elongating themselves through

through this neck into the tumor, a substance is formed, which thus becomes a distinct living part, possessed of specific properties. As far, however, as we can learn from the work before us, the remark of Mr. Hunter appears only to have attached to pendulous tumors, whereas Mr. Abernethy applies it to all species indiscriminately. 'There can be little doubt (he observes) but that tumours form every where in the same manner. The coagulable part of the blood being either accidentally effused, or deposited in consequence of disease, becomes afterwards an organized and living part, by the growth of the adjacent vessels and nerves into it.' We can by no means admit this extension of the hypothesis, even should we be inclined to favour it so far as it respects pendulous tumors; and we lament that this preconceived speculation should have induced the author to restrict his definition in what we cannot but consider as an unnatural manner. We think that this circumstance is the more to be regretted, as Mr. Abernethy has not pointed out any diagnostics, founded on external characters, by which we can discriminate between what he calls tumors, and simple enlargements of natural parts.

Supposing the origin of tumors to depend on the effusion of the coagulable portion of the blood, it becomes a question of great practical moment, to determine what is the state of the neighbouring parts; whether it be the effect of accident or common inflammation, or whether it may proceed from some diseased action in the surrounding vessels:

'In the former cases, (Mr. A. remarks) the parts surrounding the tumour may be considered simply as the sources from which it derives its nutriment, whilst it grows apparently by its own inherent powers, and its organization depends upon actions begun and existing in itself. If such a tumour be removed, the surrounding parts, being sound, soon heal, and a complete cure ensues. But if a tumour be removed, whose existence depended on the disease of the surrounding parts which are still left, and this disease be not altered by the stimulus of the operation, no benefit is obtained: these parts again produce a diseased substance, which has generally the appearance of fungus, and, in consequence of being irritated by the injury of the operation, the disease is in general increased by the means which were designed for its cure. It appears therefore that in some cases of tumours, the newly formed part alone requires removal, whilst in others the surrounding substance must be taken away, or a radical cure cannot be effected.'

Some preliminary observations on tumors in general are offered, before we proceed to the consideration of the different species of them. It is taken for granted that there must always be a state of increased action in the neighbouring vessels, and that the first object will be to repress this unnatural condition;



condition; which is most effectually done by the abstraction of blood and heat from the diseased part. Blood is best removed by leeches, and the increased temperature by the application of folded linen, wetted with sedative lotions. 'The effect of this last mode of treatment,' the author says, 'is much more considerable than at first sight might be supposed. It operates on parts far beneath the surface. As heat is so transmissible a substance, so in proportion as the temperature of the skin is diminished by evaporation, it derives heat from the subjacent parts, and thus are their morbid actions lessened.' When by these means the growth of the tumor is suspended, we are next to attempt its absorption; and for this purpose we are to employ stimulants. Mr. Abernethy observes that the use of stimulants, before the increased action is diminished, would be injurious, in the same way in which a blister is hurtful in pleurisy, before the requisite evacuations have been employed. To the propriety of this advice, and to the soundness of the doctrine on which it is founded, we in general assent; though we think that it admits of many exceptions, and will often be difficult to reduce to practice;—in the present work, we meet with no observations which can assist us in discriminating between these opposite states.

We now enter on the proper subject of the essay. Considering tumors as an order in the class of local diseases, Mr. A. distributes them into genera; to the first of which, including such tumors as have 'a firm and fleshy feel,' the title of *Sarcoma* is given. The sarcomatous tumors are then divided into several species, which are as follow: common vascular or organized, adepose, pancreatic, cystic, mastoid or mammary, tuberculated, medullary, and carcinomatous sarcoma. These different species of tumors are successively described, and observations are added respecting their origin and treatment; the whole comprehending a body of valuable information, and displaying to great advantage the talents of Mr. Abernethy, as an accurate and judicious observer. With respect to the importance of this classification in a practical point of view, we fear that much is not to be expected: indeed, at the very outset, we are informed that it is only from their internal structure that the different species of sarcomatous tumors can be designated from each other; their external characters not being sufficiently marked, to allow of their being employed as the basis of the arrangement. We can only, therefore, consider Mr. Abernethy's attempt as a mere system of nomenclature, by means of which we may acquire a greater degree of precision in our language, and may thus be enabled to arrange future observations more systematically.—The other genera of tumors

tumors are the encysted and the osseous ; which are not subdivided into species, and are treated in a much less ample manner than the first genus of sarcoma : it appears, indeed, as if the author had left his original plan incomplete.

The account of the carcinomatous tumors is particularly valuable, and seems to have especially engaged Mr. Abernethy's attention. He divides his remarks on it into three heads ; 1st, the history of carcinoma, 2dly, its anatomical structure, and 3dly, he compares it with other diseases which resemble it. The disease commences in a small spot, and extends in all directions like rays from a centre ; and its progress, even when slow, is unremitting ; for the author is inclined to think that, though it may be checked, it can never be made ' to recede by that medical treatment which lessens the bulk of other saccomatous tumors.' This opinion, however, he advances with a degree of hesitation.—It is remarked, as a striking peculiarity of carcinoma, that, whatever be the nature of the contiguous parts, it has the power of exciting them to a diseased action, similar to that by which it is itself affected.

Mr. Abernethy discusses the important question, ' whether a disease not originally cancerous can become so in its progress ?' The analogy of scrofula and syphilis would lead to the conclusion that such an alteration of diseased action might take place : but he conceives that experience has not confirmed this inference. The impeded state of the respiration, which generally occurs in the last stages of carcinoma, he inclines to attribute to an affection of the liver, which is almost universally present in this period of the disease.

With respect to the anatomical structure of carcinoma, the circumstance which most commonly claims attention is the intermixture of a number of firm whitish bands, which sometimes diverge from the centre like radii, and at other times intersect it in an irregular manner. This peculiarity leads to an important practical consequence ; for by inspecting the substance after it has been removed by an operation, we may discover whether any of these bands have been cut through, and consequently whether any part of the diseased structure has been left behind. In speaking of the affections which resemble carcinoma, the author proceeds with his usual candor ; he points out some morbid appearances that strongly resemble the symptoms of this disease, and leaves it for future observations to decide how far their identity can be established.

Before we quit the consideration of this part of Mr. Abernethy's volume, we must be permitted to express our regret that he has not taken more notice of the works of his fellow-labourers in this department. On the subject of cancer particularly,

ticularly, opinions have been entertained so opposite to each other, and leading to such contrary modes of practice, that we should have felt much gratified by hearing the judgment formed of them by a person so well qualified to decide as Mr. Abernethy. We also consider it as incumbent on those who aim at improving any branch of science, to introduce some mention of the attempts that have been made by others in the same way; it is not only interesting to mark the gradual progression of knowledge, but it may serve materially to direct the steps of future inquirers.

The second of these essays treats 'on diseases resembling syphilis'. It is well known that Mr. Hunter, in his treatise on the venereal disease, related some cases which, though they bore a very striking resemblance to this complaint, both in their symptoms and in the mode of their production, yet were concluded to be of a different nature, because they were cured without the exhibition of mercury. This train of anomalous symptoms has particularly engaged the attention of Mr. Abernethy; and in the present volume, he not only establishes the observations of his predecessor, but shews it to be a much more frequent occurrence than had been previously suspected.

We naturally enter on the subject by inquiring how we are to distinguish cases of real syphilis from these spurious instances? but to this query we are unfortunately at present unable to afford a satisfactory reply. The symptoms of the newly observed disease so accurately resemble those of syphilis, that no points of discrimination have hitherto been detected; it appears to be produced by impure connection, it attacks the same parts of the body, and affects them in the same manner; in short, it only differs from the proper venereal disease by the train of symptoms occurring in a somewhat different order, and by its being removed without the use of mercury. We are hence led to ask how far we are warranted in the position that true syphilis is never cured without the use of mercury? We confess that the whole body of experience and observation is in favour of this opinion: but, at the same time, it must be remarked that the cases to which Mr. Abernethy's essay refers have been confounded with syphilis, and have therefore been considered as diseases for the cure of which mercury was necessary; so that the current doctrine appears to have been erroneous, at least in one respect. In other cases, we certainly should not rest our judgment of the non-identity of two diseases on the operation of remedies, in opposition to the obvious appearance of the symptoms. The only method, in our opinion, of establishing this point, will be to ascertain whether this disease, when communicated to others, will retain its anomalous character,

character, or become the genuine syphilis.—Our readers will perceive, from the subsequent quotation, that we have not stated the question unfairly :

‘ Since, then, our senses fail us in our endeavours to discriminate between these two diseases, and since the most important circumstance is to distinguish whether the disease be venereal or not, we may inquire whether there are any circumstances in the progress of these different diseases which will serve us in distinguishing one from the other. It appears to me that there are ; and these cases are published not merely to shew the frequency of such occurrences, and the necessity for discrimination ; but to engage a more general attention to the means by which such distinction may be made. A very simple fact has enabled me in most cases to distinguish between the two diseases ; yet, simple as it is, if it be generally true it is very important ; and if it were universally true, it would be of the highest consequence. The fact alluded to is, that the constitutional symptoms of the venereal disease are generally progressive, and never disappear unless medicine be employed. It may be added too, they are as generally relieved under an adequate effect of mercury on the constitution.’

We apprehend that, in the minds of some persons, the doctrine here supported by Mr. Abernethy will be deemed inconsistent with the confession which he afterward makes, that true venereal chancres may heal spontaneously, or without the employment of mercury :

‘ The rule which has been mentioned relates to the constitutional symptoms of the venereal disease, for the primary ones, chancres, do sometimes heal spontaneously, generally however, though not constantly, leaving a thickening or induration of the affected part. They may also be induced to heal by topical means, without mercury, with similar events. Some enlargements of glands in the groin will also in like manner subside.’

‘ The context would imply that Mr. Abernethy conceives these enlargements of the glands to be venereal.

After all, the most important subject of investigation is to ascertain the effect of mercury in these anomalous cases :

‘ The effect of exciting a mercurial affection of the constitution in diseases resembling syphilis is, as far as my observation enables me to determine, very various. It sometimes cures them very suddenly and very differently from the gradual amendment which it produces in truly venereal diseases. Sometimes, however, these diseases yield more slowly to its operation, and are cured permanently. Sometimes the diseases recur in the same parts after a severe course of mercury ; sometimes mercury merely checks the disease, and can scarcely be said to cure it ; in which case it seems important to support the strength of the constitution, and to keep up that mercurial effect which controuls the disease, and can be borne without material derangement of the constitution for a great length of time. Sometimes also the use of mercury aggravates these diseases.’

It

It might have been expected that some light would have been thrown on this subject, by an attention to the appearance of the primary sores, but here we are disappointed. The appearance of chancres, acknowledged to be venereal, is allowed to be so different, that we are frequently obliged to form our opinion respecting them principally from concomitant circumstances; while, in like manner, the primary ulcers which produce this anomalous disease are so various in their appearance, as to afford no certain indication of their nature. The following concession of Mr. Abernethy appears to complete the perplexity of the subject:

‘ In some constitutions, the venereal disease may assume unusual characters, and be very difficult of cure. It must then be scarcely possible to discriminate between these anomalous cases of syphilis and those of diseases resembling it, unless some new distinctions are discovered.’

At present, then, the question seems to remain in this state. There is a disease which in its symptoms exactly resembles syphilis, but is not cured by mercury; syphilis itself is not always distinguishable by its symptoms; and although its constitutional effects cannot be removed without mercury, yet in some cases this medicine will not relieve them. In this uncertainty, how is the practitioner to proceed? Mr. A. prudently advises, ‘ that surgeons are not to confide in their powers of discrimination, but in all cases of ulcers arising from impure intercourse to act as if the sore was venereal, to give sufficient mercury slightly to affect the constitution, to guard against the consequences of absorption, and, by local and other general means, to cure as quickly as possible the local disease, and thus remove the source of contamination, and the necessity for the continuance of medicine.’

The remaining contents of this volume consist of remarks on injuries of the head, on aneurism, on the operation of puncturing the urinary bladder, on the *Tic Doloroux*, and on the removal of loose substances from the knee joint. The observations principally refer to cases illustrative of these different subjects, which are related by the author in his usual style of excellence. As the limits to which we are restricted will not permit us to criticize them individually, we shall only observe that they display much firmness of mind, tempered with judgment and candor, and are all worthy of the most attentive perusal.

We cannot conclude this article without expressing our regret, that a little more attention has not been bestowed on the style in which so much valuable information is conveyed. It is frequently awkward and careless, and sometimes so inaccurate as to throw a degree of uncertainty over the meaning of the author.

author. The latter part of the essay on tumors, as we before remarked, appears incomplete ; and the essay on the diseases resembling syphilis, which is now divided into two parts, written as we are informed at different times, might be improved by being new-modelled, and having the matter incorporated into one regular series.

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ART. V. *The History of Canada*, from its first Discovery, comprehending an Account of the original Establishment of the Colony of Louisiana. Vol. I. By George Heriot, Esq., Deputy Post-Master General of British America, &c. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IT is acknowledged by the author that this work is almost wholly taken from Charlevoix's *Hist. de la Nouv. France* ; and indeed so much has this been the case, that we find in these pages not merely the facts of the industrious historian, but the undisguised sentiments of the pious father. The harsh observations on the Hugunots, who were concerned in the first establishment of the colony, are not unnatural in the volumes of the French Jesuit, but they appear somewhat strange and improper in those of the subject of a Protestant king.

The establishment in Canada, at one time, it appears, had been vested by royal grant in two Protestants. At that period, however, the colony being weak, and various disasters having befallen it, though no blame was laid to the charge of the proprietors, its situation was represented to Cardinal de Richelieu, and he assigned it over to a large company. We are told that the former Grantees surrendered their rights, and that any compensation was made or even offered to them ; on the contrary, circumstances are stated whence we may collect that no idea of that sort entered the mind of the arbitrary minister ; and under the new order of things, none but catholics were allowed to join the colony. It may surprize the reader when we add that unqualified praise is here bestowed on the whole proceeding. That a member of the Society of Jesuits did not investigate the behaviour of government towards the Protestant proprietors, or that he commended every part of the transaction, would not be matter of astonishment : but we are not able to reconcile ourselves to the same conduct, in a person who holds an important public situation in British America. This is not the part of a careful and judicious compiler, but that of a servile copyist.—A proper attention, also, would have enabled Mr. Heriot, without lessening the value, to have considerably reduced the limits of his work, since he

has

has entered more into detail than was necessary : but he found it much easier to transcribe than to investigate, digest, and arrange.

Making allowances for these defects, the present work must be allowed some value ; and if it will not amuse the desultory, it will instruct the patient reader. It deserves to be perused with attention by those who are or may be concerned in expeditions, or colonies ; and who will find in it useful practical lessons,—examples to follow, as well as errors to avoid.

Italy not having benefited itself by the discoveries made in the fifteenth century, we are in danger of overlooking the share in them which is due to the natives of that country : but, says Mr. H.

‘ It is much to the credit of the Italians, that the three great states who share the continent of the New World, owe to their countrymen the first discoveries which were made in that quarter.

‘ To Christopher Columbus, a native of Genoa, Spain is indebted for her rich possessions in the western hemisphere.—Jean Gabato and his sons, citizens of Venice, opened to the English a knowledge of the territories which they afterwards occupied ; and Verazani, a native of Florence, communicated to the French the first satisfactory information of the tracts of country which were destined to be settled and possessed by that people.

‘ Another celebrated navigator may be added to these, Americus Vespuccio, a Florentine, who rendered to the Castilians and Portuguese eminent services in the New World ; and who, although not the first discoverer of that continent, had the singular and equally pre-eminence of communicating to it his name.’

The state of Canada is said to have derived its present name from the following incident : the Spaniards having laboured finding no mines, pronounced frequently these two words, “ *Aca Nada*,” “ here is nothing ;” which, being repeated by some of the savages to the French, made them imagine that *Canada* was the name by which it was called among the natives.

We insert the following passage on account of the description which it contains of a district which is subject to Great Britain. We are told that Cartier was the first who explored it with a view to a permanent settlement ; and it was during his second voyage, which took place in 1535, that he was so employed :

‘ The vessels again entered the gulph on the 10th of August, when Cartier gave to a bay, which is situated on the north coast and opposite the island of Anticosti, the name of Saint Laurent, in honour of a Saint in the Romish calendar, whose fast is observed on that day ; a name, which was afterwards extended to the Gulph, and to that immense river which there disembogues its waters, formerly known by

by the appellation of the river of Canada; which, for vastness of sources, length of navigable course, and picturesque grandeur, and beautiful scenery exhibited by its banks, stands unrivalled by any body of fresh waters on the habitable globe. To Anticosti he gave the title of Assumption, but this has now yielded to its former name.

All these attempts proved abortive; and a permanent settlement did not take place till 1603, when an expedition sailed for the purpose in consequence of the representations of the *Sieur Pontgrave*, an expert navigator, and one of the principal merchants of *St. Maloes*. When about to depart, the voyagers had the good fortune to engage in the conduct of the scheme, *Samuel de Champlain*, commander of a vessel which had just arrived from the *West Indies*; and to the ability, fortitude, perseverance, and zeal of this person, the colony was afterward indebted for its establishment. *Champlain* explored all the neighbouring seas and regions; it was he who, in 1608, fixed on the promontory of *Quebec* as the most eligible spot for a settlement; it was owing to him that the design was not abandoned; and after the colony had fallen into the hands of the English, it was in consequence of his representations that its restoration by that power was made a point of importance, and was obtained at the peace of *St. Germain en Laye*. Though possessed of singular merit, however, he did not always steer clear of faults. The French found the natives in their vicinity most amicably disposed towards them: which was occasioned by the hope that the former would give them effectual aid against other powerful tribes of their countrymen. In this expectation they were not disappointed, for *Champlain* assisted them with his forces in person: but it is here said that he did this without due regard to future consequences; and it is observed that to this conduct 'may be traced the calamities and dangers to which afterward the colony was frequently exposed, and which at some periods threatened its total destruction.' He also displayed a condescension towards the barbarians, which, though it answered some good ends, lessened in them that respect which his character and situation required.

The colony had scarcely been established twenty years, before it was taken by the English: but, as we have seen, it was soon afterward restored to its former masters; and *Champlain*, who had throughout been "the life and soul" of the settlement, was re-appointed its governor. Its state at this period is not without interest:

'Cape Breton, the fort of *Quebec* containing some houses and barracks, a few huts in the Island of *Montreal*, as many at *Tadoussac*, and at some other spots on the borders of the *St. Laurence*, for the convenience of fishing, and traffic with the natives, the com-



meacement of a settlement at Three Rivers, and the ruins of Port Royal composed the whole extent of the settlements of New France, and all the fruits yet derived from the discoveries of Verazani, Cartier, Roberval, Champlain, from the great expences disbursed by the marquis de la Roche and by Monts, and from the industry of a considerable number of Frenchmen, who might have raised these establishments to a state of higher importance, had their several efforts been judiciously directed.

Shortly after this time, the settlement lost its father and protector, the interesting Champlain.—We insert the tribute which is here paid to him :

‘ A man of uncommon penetration and disinterested views, he acquitted himself with honour and credit in dangerous and critical conjunctures. His unshaken constancy in the pursuit of plans on which he had resolved, his unshaken firmness in great calamities, his ardent and amiable zeal for the welfare of his country, his tenderness and compassion for the misfortunes of others, his attention to promote the interest of his friends often in preference to his own, denoted him a character well qualified to discharge the duties of the situation which fortune had destined him to fill. His memoirs afford testimony of his professional knowledge, and evince him to have been a faithful historian, a traveller who regarded with attention whatever new objects presented themselves to his observation, a geometrician, and a skilful navigator. The chief object of his ambition seems to have been that of becoming the parent and founder of a colony : an ambition the most laudable which can occupy the human mind.’

In this infant colony, we find many offices of the highest utility and the greatest public benefit performed by the several religious orders ; we mean those of pious instruction, education, attendance on the sick, and the conversion of the rude natives. Their exertions in the latter respect were indefatigable ; and the contrast between the conduct of our own and that of the French settlers is very striking. It will be recollected, however, that the original historian, who is here so blindly followed, belonged to one of those orders.

M. Montmagny, the successor of Champlain as governor, was desirous of keeping good terms with the Iroquois, or the Five Nations ; and this design led to an interview between him and their chiefs, of which, as it exemplifies the manner of making treaties among these savage tribes, we shall quote the account here given :

‘ The native allies of the French being equally solicitous for peace, he waited until, through their means, a favourable opportunity presented itself. On this occasion he went to Three Rivers, where having erected a tent in the fort, he placed himself in a chair, having on either side of him the officers and principal inhabitants of the colony.

colony. The députés of the Iroquois were seated on a matt near his feet; they had chosen this place to mark their respect for Ononthio, the governor, whom they always distinguished by that appellation, and whom they generally addressed by the title of father.

The Algonquins, the Montagnez, the Attikamegues, and some other savages who spoke the same language, were opposite, and the Hurons were mixed with the French. The middle space was unoccupied, that the necessary evolutions might be made without embarrassment and interruption.

The Iroquois had provided themselves with seventeen belts, which were equal to the number of propositions they had to discuss; and to expose them to view in the order in which they were to be explained, they erected two picquets, with a cord extended from one to the other, on which they were suspended. The orator of the Cantons taking one in his hand, and presenting it to the Governor General, spoke thus: "Ononthio, be attentive to my words, all the Iroquois speak by my mouth; my heart entertains no evil sentiments, all my intentions are upright; we wish to forget our songs of war, and to resume the voice of cheerfulness." He immediately began to sing, his colleagues marking the measure with a *bé*, which they drew from the bottom of their chest, and in dancing he moved quickly, and gesticulated in a manner perfectly grotesque. He cast his eyes towards the sun, he rubbed his arms as if to prepare himself for wrestling, and then assuming a composed air, continued his discourse. "This belt is to thank thee, my father, for having given his life to my brother; thou hast withdrawn him from the teeth of the Algonquin; but shouldst thou have permitted him to depart alone? If his canoe had upset, who could have assisted him? Had he been drowned, or had he by any other accident perished, thou couldst have had no tidings of peace, and thou wouldst have attributed to us a fault, which would have been alone imputable to thee." In finishing these words, he suspended a collar on the cord, he laid hold of another, and after having fixed it on the arm of Couture, a Frenchman, proceeded: "My father, this collar restores to thee thy countryman; I was willing to say to him, my nephew, take a canoe, and return to thy country, but I never should have been happy until I had learned certain tidings of his arrival. My brother, whom thou sentest back to us, suffered much and encountered great dangers. He was obliged alone to carry his baggage, paddle his canoe the whole day, draw it up the rapids, and be always on his guard against surprise." The orator accompanied this discourse with expressive gestures; and represented the situation of a person sometimes conducting a canoe with a pole, an operation which in Canada is called *picquer de fond*, at others rowing with a paddle; sometimes he appeared out of breath, then, resuming the energy of his powers, he remained for a while in a state of tranquillity.

He seemed in carrying his baggage, to wound his foot against a stone, and he proceeded limping, as if he felt the reality of pain.

The other collars related to peace, of which the conclusion was the subject of this embassy; each had its particular import, and the

orator explained them in the same graphical manner, which, in the discussion of the former, he had displayed.

‘One rendered the paths open and free, another calmed the spirit of war, which rendered the navigation of the rivers dangerous; there was one to announce that they should henceforth visit each other without fear or distrust; and with each different branch of the subject a belt was connected—the feasts which they should mutually give; the alliance between all the nations; the desire which they always entertained of restoring Fathers Jaques and Bressani, who were prisoners; the kindness they intended for them; their acknowledgment for the deliverance of three Iroquois captives; every one of these was expressed by a collar; and had the orator refrained from speaking, his action would, in a great degree, have developed the sentiments which he uttered. He spoke and acted for three hours without appearing to be heated, and he was the first to propose a species of festival, which terminated the assembly, and which consisted in feasting, singing, and dancing.

‘Two days after, M. de Montmagny gave an answer to the propositions of the Iroquois; it not being customary to reply on the same day. This assembly was equally numerous as the first, and the Governor-General made as many presents as he had received belts of wampum.—Couture was the speaker, and he delivered his discourse without gesticulation, without interruption, and with a gravity which corresponded with the character of the personage whose interpreter he was. When he had finished, Piskaret, an Algonquin chief, arose, and offered his present: “Behold,” said he, “a stone which I place on the sepulchre of those who were killed in the war, that no one may attempt to remove their bones, and that every desire of avenging their death may be laid aside.” This captain was one of the bravest men in Canada, and had distinguished himself by deeds of singular valour.

‘Negabama, chief of the Montagnez, then presented a deer skin, saying, “that it was for the purpose of making shoes for the deputies of the Iroquois, lest in returning home they should wound their feet against the stones.”

Until the wars of England and France began to be principally waged on the Western Continent, the history of this colony is little more than a narrative of internal jealousies between the several members of the government, and of the struggles between the colony and the native tribes; particularly those of the Iroquois. The present volume brings down the history only to the year 1725.

The detail of discoveries on the Mississippi, the adventures of de la Sale, the description of the manners and customs of the Natchez, the incidents which befel St. Denys, and the progress of the colony of Louisiana, form the most interesting parts of the work: but we do not think, with the author, that they bear any close relation to the subject which he had before been treating. On British readers, accounts of Louisiana

Louisiana have no longer any particular claims, while all that relates to Canada intimately concerns them: we should therefore have been better pleased, if the space which embraces the last third of the volume had been devoted to the remaining part of the history of Canada: but it would seem that the track lost its charms, because there was no longer a faithful Charlevoix to direct the footsteps of the writer. Symmetry and proportion ought to be regarded in literary composition as much as in any other art; their observance would favour due conciseness; and surely the expence to buyers of books, the risk to authors, and the rapid flow of time, should induce the *artizans of literature* to labour to be brief.

ART. VI. *Literary Hours*; or Sketches, critical, narrative, and poetical. By Nathan Drake, M.D. Vol. III. 8vo. pp. 560. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

A COMMENCEMENT of the miscellaneous lucubrations of this ingenious writer was announced in the 29th volume of our New Series, p. 282. They were afterward amplified into two volumes; and, such has been the favourable reception which they have experienced from the public, that we have now to report a third, which contains a variety of additional papers.

No. 41. '*Of the limits of imitation, as applied to poetical expression.*' This title is somewhat ambiguous: but the author's obvious intention is to determine how far one poet may be allowed to adopt the phraseology of another. In many cases, we can scarcely hesitate to pronounce between legitimate imitation and direct plagiarism: but, in many more, we can draw no precise line of demarcation; and much must be left to the writer's discretion and the reader's candour. Instead of throwing any additional light on this critical question, the present essayist seems anxious to avow his acquiescence in the sentiments of those who have pronounced his Ode to Laura a too close and palpable imitation of the celebrated passage in the *Paradise Lost*, "Sweet is the breath of morn," &c. The rejected Ode is, nevertheless, intitled to considerable praise; though we could have dispensed with its republication, and with the substitution of another, 'to Pity,' in its room. From this last, however, we may take a few stanzas, as specimens of Dr. Drake's poetical talents:

The tender tear shall Petrarch shed,  
And, mourning o'er Le Fevre's bed,  
The sigh of love repress;  
And sad Rousseau, to passion dear,  
And plaintive Otway, pausing near,  
Thy gentle shade caress.

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' From

- ' From fair Fiddle's grassy grave,  
 Shall hapless Collins haunt thy cave,  
 And breathe his magic song?  
 For whom, on Arun's sedgy side,  
 Still loud the notes of sorrow glide  
 At eve the woods along.
- ' Ah maiden lov'd! from earliest youth  
 To thee I've vow'd unblemish'd truth,  
 Each trembling pulse is thine;  
 To thee first lisp'd my artless muse,  
 And cull'd for thee of choicest hues  
 The flowers that deck thy shrine.
- ' Ah me! to thoughtless mirth assign'd,  
 If e'er I fail thy wounds to bind,  
 And leave the wretch to weep,  
 May I, in sorrow, beg my bread,  
 And dead to joy, to pity dead,  
 In dull oblivion sleep.'

The first two of these stanzas afford a happy imitation of the plaintive and pathetic manner of Collins, as exemplified in his ode on the death of Thomson.

Nos. 42—44. The account of Herrick and his writings, though it contains some particulars which are recommended by their interest and novelty, is rather tediously protracted; but, in justice to Dr. Drake, we have to remark that on this, as on other occasions, he is laudably solicitous to draw genuine merit from oblivion. Of Herrick's poetical powers, we may form an estimate from his verses

' To Blossoms.

- ' Fair pledges of a fruitful tree,  
 Why do ye fall so fast?  
 Your date is not so past;  
 But you may stay yet here a while,  
 To blush and gently smile;  
 And go at last.
- ' What, were ye born to be  
 An hour or half's delight;  
 And so to bid good night?  
 'Twas pity Nature brought ye forth  
 Merely to shew your worth,  
 And lose you quite.
- ' But you are lovely Leaves, where we  
 May read how soon things have  
 Their end, though ne'er so brave:  
 And after they have shown their pride,  
 Like you a while, they glide  
 Into the Grave.'

45—47. These three numbers are employed with the tale of 'Sir Egbert,' a sort of Gothic romance; in which, though the diction aspires at elegance, the narrative is diffuse and heavy. The author, in his fictions, pays too little respect to probability, and too much to that gloomy and terrific painting of castles and apparitions with which Mrs. Radcliffe and some German writers have lately visited the world.

48. Of the three short poems contained in this number, that which is addressed to Fancy is not devoid of merit: but the subject is too trite to awaken expectation.—Verses 'on Content' are given from the pen of the Rev. Francis Drake, B.D. which, though composed with due regard to metrical harmony, have not sufficient charms to reconcile us to a life of monastic seclusion; and Mr. Drake's retirement, of which he seems to be so much enamoured, scarcely deserves a more liberal epithet.—The verses 'to Zephyr,' by a lady, are rather pretty than impressive.

In Nos. 49—51. the essayist has bestowed considerable pains in adding to the number of striking passages adduced by Mr. Dunster, from Sylvester's translation of Du Bartas' *Days and Weeks*. Most of the new quotations are worthy of transcription: but the learned gleaner surely indulges in the language of exaggeration, when he affirms that the praise of a country life in Sylvester's version 'may be put into competition with almost any eulogium on the country, written since the æra of the Mantuan Bard;' and when he hazards the assertion that 'English rural or pastoral poetry has not either in point of beauty, sentiment, or engaging simplicity, a nobler passage to produce.' Let the impartial reader peruse the whole; and we think that he will be somewhat startled at such encomiastic approbation.—Again,

'Dear Mother England! bend thine aged knee,  
And to the heav'n lift up thy hands with me;  
Off with thy pomp, hence with thy pleasures past,  
Thy mirth be mourning, and thy feast a fast.'

'The texture of these lines,' says Dr. D. 'is perfectly modern, their energy and melody are great, and they are entirely free from affectation, quaintness, or puerility.'—We mean not to question the music nor the sweetness of such lines: but can the last, which presents us with a studied antithesis, and a play on words, be pronounced *entirely free from affectation, quaintness, or puerility?*

In No. 52. we meet with some pleasing remarks on the old metrical ballad, with an imitation of that peculiar style of poetry. This little piece, which is intitled 'Arthur and Edith,'

would have better accorded with its most admired prototypes, had the narrative been more condensed and abrupt. The introductory stanzas are spirited and affecting :

- ' Oh Richard ! oh my lovely boy !  
'Tis now twelve years and more,  
Since thy dear father left these arms,  
His wife and native shore.
- ' To Salem's field the warrior flew,  
War's wasting rage to deal,  
And many a vaunting paynim fled  
The lightning of his steel.
- ' But now in some lone turret's height  
He sighs the live-long day,  
Or haply, clad in pilgrim garb,  
Pursues his weary way.
- ' And he who in the clash of arms,  
And in the battle's roar,  
And in the tourney's gallant strife,  
The meed of valour bore,
- ' May now, upon the blasted heath,  
Of thirst and hunger die,  
And not one helping friend be near ;  
No, not a comfort nigh.
- ' E'en now, perchance, on Edith's name,  
The dying warrior calls,  
And, fainting, breathes the tender sigh,  
And blessing Edith, falls.'

The following is also poetical :

- ' See'st thou, my son, yon evening star,  
Thro' those moss'd branches gleam,  
Yon evening star to thee is bright,  
And dear her modest beam.'

In some other parts of this effusion, we remark a feebleness, and the absence of that simplicity of expression which seems to be inseparably connected with the true pathetic.

53—58. Six numbers are here devoted to a classical view of the Scandinavian mythology ;—a subject which has no pretensions to novelty, but the principal outlines of which Dr. Drake has sketched in a very pleasing and attractive manner: intermingling his observations with various suitable extracts from Cottle, Sayers, Sterling, Penrose, Gray, &c. We cannot, however, agree with him in thinking that the Gothic system of superstition can afford much interesting machinery or ornament to our national poetry ; because it can never be

so familiar to the modern scholar as the mythology of Greece and Rome, of which the language has been consecrated by the lapse of ages. Of the Scandinavian history, our notions are necessarily obscure and vague; and though occasional allusions to the dark and sombre fables of the north may enhance the gloom of a fragment or an ode, they can never, with propriety and effect, supply the exigences of an epic poem.— We must not dismiss the present elegant exposition of the Gothic creed, however, without particularizing the author's ingenious observations on the respect which was paid to the female sex, by those tribes whom the Romans stigmatized with the epithet *barbarian*; which we recommend to the reader's notice.

No. 59. Here the author has introduced, 'under the title of *The Spectre*, a specimen of that species which endeavours to interest, through the medium of Gothic superstition.' This legendary ballad may remind the reader of *Leonora*, and *Margaret's Ghost*: but it is too diffuse, and the story is too *finely* told.

60. The concluding article relates to the life and writings of Michael Bruce. Lord Craig and Dr. Anderson have already collected the few particulars that are known concerning this unfortunate child of genius: but Dr. Drake's tribute to his memory is not the less affecting; while his critical remarks on the poem of *Loch Leven* are creditable to his judgment and his taste.

The present volume, on the whole, will not be found inferior to either of the other two: but it may be proper to remind our readers, that the author delights chiefly in the walk of grave and solemn criticism; and that he rarely unbends in the more smiling paths of wit or humour. Though his writings do not often manifest great depth of erudition, nor much philosophical acuteness, they bespeak an elegant and accomplished mind; and we trust that they will obtain a place in the library of the polite and classical scholar.

Dr. Drake has lately published another work, intitled *Essays illustrative of the Tatler, Spectator, &c.* which we shall shortly notice.



ART. VII. *The History of the Revenue of the British Empire.* Containing an Account of the Public Income and Expenditure from the remotest Periods recorded in History, to Michaelmas 1802, with an Account of the Revenue of Scotland and Ireland, and an Analysis of the Sources of Public Revenue in general. By Sir John Sinclair, Bart., M.P. Vol III. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

WITH his usual diligence, Sir John Sinclair pursues his career as the historian of our finances; and to the importance of his services in this department, as well as to his manner of performing them, we have already borne frequent testimony\*. In the first chapter of the present volume, he gives an account of our national debt; distinctly stating the items of which the principal consists, the amount of the interest which it absorbs, and the sums expended on its management.

The circumstance of the Bank being the oldest of the creditors of the state induces Sir John briefly to sketch its history, which may interest our readers:

' Soon after the Restoration, it was proposed to erect an office of credit for the reception of goods and merchandise: for the appraised value of which, notes were to be issued, which it was imagined the merchant would find less difficulty in negotiating, than in borrowing upon the goods themselves: and such a plan might be attended with considerable advantages to commerce, if commodities were now to be warehoused in public repositories, a proper receipt given by an officer appointed for that purpose, and the property of goods to be transferred by indorsements upon such receipts. The high duties to which all commodities are now subject, render every plan for the ease and convenience of trade more necessary than ever.

' It was in the year 1678 that Dr. Lewis, an eminent clergyman, published his *Model of a Bank*, with some observations on the great advantages that would accrue from it, to the crown and to the people. But who could venture, in the reign of a rash, desperate, and needy monarch like Charles II. to trust their property in any place which he might be tempted to invade, and to which he could possibly find access?

' The same circumstance prevented the establishment of a bank anno 1683. By letters patent from the crown, a company had been erected, called the Royal Fishery of England, instituted for the purpose of carrying on that branch of commerce with advantage to this country, and, indeed, with the hopes of depriving the Dutch of the profits they acquired by fishing upon our coasts. Upon this company, it appears, that a *general bank of credit* was engrafted: but though the plan was supported by persons of considerable character

\* See M. R. Vols. lxxiv. p. 94. lxxxi. p. 23. and iii. N.S. p. 1.

and property, neither the state of the government, nor the temper of the times, were calculated for such an institution ; and consequently it was soon dropped.

‘ The present Bank of England was established *anno* 1694. It was suggested by William Paterson, a Scotchman of great natural abilities. (who was afterwards one of the original Directors) ; and carried through by the influence of Michael Godfrey, a gentleman of considerable influence in the city, who was appointed the first Deputy Governor, to whom he had communicated the plan.

‘ Nothing can more clearly prove the low state of our public credit, and the great scarcity of specie at that time, than the terms which parliament found itself under the necessity to grant. For the sake of receiving £1,200,000, government agreed to pay not only interest, at the rate of 8 *per cent* and 4000*l.* for the expence of management ; but the subscribers were also erected into a corporate body for the purpose of carrying on the lucrative trade of banking. It was expected, however, that the circulation of their notes, and the establishment of paper credit, would greatly facilitate the raising of supplies, and prove a general ease and accommodation to the public in all pecuniary transactions.’

In order to dispose the public to enter into the scheme,

‘ It was stated, that, by such means, the rich might have their personal property secured from every risk, and might enjoy, at the same time, great pecuniary advantages. The landed gentlemen, who formerly could not borrow four thousand pounds upon an estate of one thousand pounds a year, without additional personal security, might now, (it was said,) borrow four thousand pounds, upon three hundred pounds *per annum*. The merchant who brought a cargo to England worth three thousand pounds, might have money to that amount at the Bank, without the smallest difficulty, and might thus carry on his traffic to additional advantage : and, to sum up all in a few words, “ it would render the sovereign great, the gentry rich, the farmer flourishing : our commerce would increase, our ships multiply, our seamen would never want employment ; new manufacturers would be set up, and the old greatly encouraged.”

‘ The public, by such arguments as these, being impressed with a favourable idea of the measure, on the 16th of June 1694, a commission was issued under the great seal, for taking subscriptions. On the 21st of June, the commissioners attended for the first time, at Mercers Chapel. Nearly £300,000 were subscribed the first day ; £200,000 the second, and as much on the third : and before the second of July, the whole sum was made up. The success was beyond expectation ; for it had been thought necessary to make provisions in the bill, on the supposition that only £600,000 might be subscribed.

‘ Thus the Bank was established ; but it was entitled to no exclusive privilege of banking. It was merely erected into a corporation, which it was in the power of the public, upon one year’s notice after the 1st of August 1705, to annihilate, by repaying the money that was borrowed.’

Sir John thus concludes his account of this national institution :

‘ From this concise view of the various agreements with the Bank of England, it does not appear that they were ever attended with any material benefit to the public. The only sum which government ever received, without becoming bound to pay, either the interest usual at the time, after a short suspension, or to repay the principal, was the trifling sum of £110,000 obtained by Mr. Grenville. The corporation has undoubtedly been of service in circulating exchequer bills ; in facilitating, by their notes, pecuniary transactions ; and in maintaining, to a considerable degree, credit both public and private : But it is to be hoped, when a bargain comes again to be concluded, instead of any advance of money, or any inadequate compensation of that nature, that *one half of the clear annual profits of the company* will be insisted upon. A power also should be reserved in the state, at any time it thought proper, to erect another bank, which, though it would not be much relished by those who are infected with a spirit of monopoly, yet the consequences of such a rivalry would be of infinite benefit to trade, and productive of many solid advantages to the nation.’

It is evident that this great corporation is no favourite with the present author ; and it appears to be his wish that, on the next occasion, the contractors on the part of the public should, by the bargain then to be made, recover all that has been lost by the remissness of their predecessors. We own that the fluctuating nature of the body of proprietors seems to us to furnish a decisive objection to the measure. Whether it would be expedient to erect another bank, as is here proposed, is a question to the decision of which we do not feel that we are equal : but we have the good fortune of concurring with the honourable Baronet in the opinion that the clause introduced into the 6th of Anne, limiting private banking firms to six partners, was solely calculated to serve a monopoly, at the expence of the public. We also disapprove, not less than Sir John, the indirect repeal procured by the late Chancellor of the Exchequer, of the provision of the fifth of W. and M., by which the Bank was prohibited to make advances to government without the authority of Parliament.

It having been found that, in every country in which paper not convertible into specie has been circulated, bankruptcy has followed, no one can contemplate our own situation without apprehension. At the same time, if forgery can be prevented, and the issues of paper can be confined within due limits, there can be no doubt that the saving of the loss arising from the wear of the precious metals furnishes a strong inducement in favour of a circulating medium, constituted as is the present.

present. This is a great and difficult subject; referring to which the author remarks:

‘ The increase in the circulation of Bank notes, from £8,640,250 on the 26th February 1797, to £17,931,930 on the 25th November 1803, is a circumstance which would hardly have been credited in former times, and the effects of which certainly cannot be of an indifferent or trifling nature, but must ultimately prove either materially useful or pernicious to the country. It is singular also, that though the Bank refused to issue small notes when recommended to them in 1796; yet that a sum equal to one half of their total circulation in 1797, was issued by them, *in such notes*, in 1803.

‘ With regard to this increasing issue, and the policy of continuing the suspension of payments in cash, I have already delivered in this work, (see vol. ii. p. 307) my sentiments respecting them. The more I reflect upon the subject, the more I am satisfied that no country can prosper without having an abundant circulation, or in other words, money easily attainable, and at a moderate rate of interest. Where that can be effected by paper convertible into coin, it is certainly the most desirable system to rely on; but if that cannot be brought about, owing to improvident wars, public extravagance, or private luxury and profusion, it is better to have an abundant circulation *of paper only*, than to permit any deficiency in so essential an article for the existence of a prosperous nation, as the medium of barter. I am also convinced, that a country is more likely ultimately to procure a sufficiency of the precious metals, through the industry excited by means of abundant paper circulation, than if that industry were cramped by the impossibility of obtaining funds or credit to support it.’

Sir J. S. states that, in 1804, the capital of the national debt, including twenty-five millions, the interest of which is payable by the Irish government, was £637,660,465, bearing an interest of £22,877,954, and the management of it cost the nation £316,025.

The plan for the reduction of our immense burthens, proposed by the author, is too complicated to admit of our giving any report of it. That which has been adopted appears to us to be, in its leading outlines, the most practicable of any with which we are acquainted. The sums paid off, from 1st Aug. 1786 to 1st Feb. 1804, we are informed, amounted to £99,306,103; and the sum applicable in the latter year to the reduction of the debt was £6,362,114. Sir John then observes

‘ That such a sum as six millions regularly applied to the reduction of the national debt, enormous as it may appear in its present state, would soon effect a very considerable diminution of it; but unfortunately, before a sinking fund has time to operate to any great extent, new debts are contracted; and one year of a general war, dissipates the savings of many years of peace. At the same time, if

we were fortunate enough to see the tranquillity of Europe established on a solid foundation, there can be no doubt, that such progress would be made in discharging our national incumbrance, as never has been formerly exhibited by any other nation.'

In the author's statement of the revenue of his native country, a strong national bias and occasional symptoms of ill humour are betrayed: but his patriotism and liberal views, as he proceeds, appear paramount to every narrow and unworthy feeling. He urges very powerful considerations in favour of the erection of a stamp-office in Edinburgh; and he calculates that Scotland pours upwards of two millions sterling into the British treasury. When treating on this subject, he very sensibly remarks that

'If Scotland, under all the disadvantages of having become in a manner an inferior and subordinate kingdom, is able to preserve the same proportion between the income of the two countries which existed at the Union, there is no just reason for complaint. That cannot be denied. England and Scotland, at the memorable æra above alluded to, were taxed to the amount of £5,851,803, of which it was supposed that Scotland would produce about £160,000 *per annum*, or little more than a thirty sixth part of the whole; whereas at present, the gross produce of the income of the two kingdoms may be stated at £44,800,000, of which £2,800,000, or about one-sixteenth, instead of one thirty-sixth part, is furnished by North Britain. The difference in the proportion between the two periods, does no small degree of credit to the financial resources of Scotland. Besides, the income of Scotland ought not to be compared with that of England in general, including the metropolis: for London is the capital of Scotland as well as of England, and if the taxes which it yields were deducted, the difference in regard to taxation between Scotland and the country in England, considering the difference of extent and of fertility between the two kingdoms, would not be much dwelt on.'

If the benefits which England has derived from the union are abundantly manifest, Sir John Sinclair clearly shews that it has been not less beneficial to his countrymen. Indeed, one fact mentioned by him, without any immediate view to the point in question, is completely decisive with regard to it. At the union, the post-office was farmed at the inconsiderable sum of £1,194.—The spirit in which Sir John concludes his observations on this subject cannot be too much applauded:

'But the Union at the same time is an event, the existence of which Scotland has no reason to regret. Those who will take the trouble of comparing the situation of that country, whilst it was subject to independent monarchs, or even since the two crowns were united, (the reign of William III. itself not excepted), with its present state, must soon be convinced of the happy consequences which have resulted from it. We cannot indeed attribute every improvement which has recently taken place to the Union. For without it, there

there must have been some, and perhaps considerable advancement : it is impossible, however, to deny, that the progress of Scotland, by that event, has been not a little accelerated.

‘ The Scots have also to consider, that by the Union, they have connected themselves with a nation, who will make as distinguished a figure in the page of history, as any people that ever existed : a nation that can boast, not only of warriors and of statesmen, of poets, of philosophers, and of artists, equal, and in many instances superior, to those of other countries ; but who have also brought the various arts connected with the cultivation of the soil ; the improvements necessary in carrying on every species of manufacturing industry ; the theory and the practice of commerce, that wonderful assemblage that constitutes naval strength ; and above all, the principles of good government, and the forms of a free constitution, to a height of perfection, which the world never before witnessed.

‘ May both nations, or, to speak more properly, the natives of South and North Britain, sensible of the mutual advantages which they now enjoy, forget every remnant of ancient jealousy and rancour : and those whom the hand of Providence hath joined, may no man impiously put asunder !’

The author is equally elaborate in the details which he gives of the revenue of Ireland ; and he bestows appropriate praise on the mode of examining the public accounts that was pursued in the late Irish Parliament. Had a similar course been followed in this country, it is probable that our burthens would have been somewhat less heavy : but at all events the regulation to which we refer must be allowed to have been highly salutary. It may be feared that it is within the order of nature that the seeds of decay shall sooner or later pervade every human institution ; and there is ground for suspecting that they have long appeared in the shape of *profusion*, in the financial part of our system.

‘ It has often been remarked, that the laws and regulations established in small states, are in general wiser, and better calculated to obtain the ends in view than those of an extensive empire ; and, as one proof among many others which might be adduced to support the justness of that observation, it may be remarked, that the system adopted in Ireland, prior to the union, for passing the public accounts, seems to be infinitely preferable to the one which took place in the British parliament. In the latter case, a supply was voted, without any previous inquiry regarding the necessity thereof, and a number of accounts were called for, which were detailed by the Chancellor of the Exchequer, in what was called *his budget* : whereas, in Ireland, the following more regular system was pursued.

‘ In the first place, certain accounts properly arranged, of the expences of government, and the produce of every branch of the revenue, were annually laid before the house of commons. As soon as these were produced, a committee was appointed to inspect them, and to report their opinion thereon, with power to appoint sub-com-  
mittees,

mittees, that the accounts, if necessary, might be more minutely examined. When the report of the committee, accompanied with the accounts therein referred to, was presented, it was ordered to lie upon the table for the perusal of the members, soon after it was referred to the committee of supply; and then the house resolved, after evidence of the necessity thereof, "*that a supply be granted to His Majesty.*"

'This plan is certainly preferable to the one adopted in the British parliament, which has been already explained. Its superiority appeared so evident to the Irish house of commons, that it became a standing order of the house, "*that no money bill be read until the report from the committee of accounts be first made.*" This previous examination was a great check upon improvident expences, and with such authentic documents to refer to, the members could reason with more advantage on the financial circumstances of the nation, than could be done from loose and undigested documents, or the harangue of any minister, however distinctly stated.'

In 1804 the national debt of Ireland	
amounted to	£44,749,325
The interest, to	2,217,451
The sinking fund, to	100,000
The revenue in the preceding year netted	3,906,122

The reflections occurring in these pages on the Irish union are those of a liberal and comprehensive mind; and the author gives a neat summary of its advantages as it respects the sister island.

Though, as a financial *historian*, we have found reason to commend the present author, we own that as a financial *projector* he does not appear to us with similar advantage. The weight of our actual burthens renders all speculations of this sort far from pleasing; and reasoning on the extent of our resources is vain, when our feeling tells us that the pressure is already extreme. We deem it no crime to remind ministers that our resources have a limit; nor do we hold it to be mischievous to remonstrate against too rapid approaches towards that point. If the patriots of former times were mistaken in regard to this boundary, are we to infer that unchecked extravagance will never reach it? It was the unparalleled increase of our commerce that occasioned their predictions to fail; and do appearances warrant our counting on a continued progression in this line? Would it not be frantic, would it not be deliberately to entail bankruptcy on our posterity, to impose burthens on the foundation of such a notion?—The voice of corruption is sufficiently busy and clamorous, whenever one of its minions is assailed; and shall not the heavily burthened subject of this free state be allowed to throw out cautions against the mismanagement of the public fortune? There is, we own,

own, more of complaisance in such sort of restrictive patriotism than is suitable to our palate. If, however, it be an offence to intimate that we have gone deeply into our resources, what must it be to supply, as the author does, a demonstration of the fact?—and what can have that effect in a greater degree than the pitiful taxes which he proposes; taxes which, for the most part, are contrary to the free spirit of the constitution, to sound policy, and to the public welfare! What will be the inference of an intelligent observer, when an eminent financial writer can point to no better resources than imposts on foreign travel and foreign residence, on tailors and milliners, on the wearing of trinkets and the use of furniture; when he advises the appropriation, by the treasury, of all the hides in the kingdom; when he advises ministers to turn underwriters, guardians of the poor, and trustees of the roads, in order to secure the surplus arising from those funds? What does this counsel import, and what conclusions does it warrant in regard to our financial situation? The most free and intemperate declamation on the exhausted state of our resources alarms much less than the shifts to which the minister must soon apply, according to the mode of raising revenue which is traced in the pages before us. We would ask the honourable Baronet whether it be not as absurd to flatter a spendthrift state, as a spendthrift individual? The nation, like the private person whose fortune has been considerably affected, must suffer in proportion; it can only escape fatal consequences by all possible retrenchments, by extreme frugality, and by a thrifty management of its means; and to whisper the reverse of this conduct in the public ear is more like the conduct of a designing flatterer, than that of an approved and sincere friend.—We differ thus widely from the maxims of political prudence laid down by the respectable Baronet, but we by no means impeach his intentions, and are very far from ascribing to him any unworthy motive. We acknowledge the merit of his labours, and the claims which they establish to the regards of the public: but we cannot commend him as an original financier, and beg leave to remind him of the sound old adage,

*“ Quam quisque noris artem, in hac se exerceat.”*

In the chapter on the national resources, in which the matters occur that have thus excited our animadversions, hints are also suggested regarding economy and retrenchment which deserve the most opposite character, and are indeed admirable.

The analysis of the sources of revenue in general, founded on historical facts, here introduced in the form of an appendix



to the volume, is extremely curious ; and it does great credit to the industry and research of the author. These materials, if somewhat more enlarged, would form a very interesting work.

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ART. VIII. *A concise History of the present State of the Commerce of Great Britain.* Translated from the German of Charles Reinhard, LL.D. of the University of Gottingen, and Knight of the Order of St. Joachim. With Notes, and considerable Additions relating to the principal Manufactures, by J. Savage \*. 8vo. pp. 74. 2s. 6d. Boards. Symonds. 1805.

WE had occasion some time ago to acknowledge the obligations which a foreigner, in the person of M. Gentz †, had conferred on this country on the subject of Politics; and we have now the satisfaction of announcing a similar though not an equally extensive service rendered to us by another respectable stranger, Dr. Reinhard. The positions which he labours in these pages are, the permanency and solidity of our financial resources, and the consequent impossibility of reducing the kingdom by length of contest; as well as the efficiency of our armed force to resist all attempts to subdue it by violent methods. He exposes the misrepresentations of our enemies with as much temper as ability, and with as much good faith as argumentative strength. Unlike too many vindicators among ourselves, he does not descend into calumnies and slander, which have little or no foundation in truth, and which principally injure and degrade those who make use of them.

In reference to the tenets of our adversaries, the author observes :

‘ However lightly these may weigh with the well-informed, they are calculated to have a contrary effect on the great body of the enemies of England ; it therefore becomes necessary to prove their fallacy, by a deliberate and candid discussion of the importance and stability of the Commerce of Great-Britain, that great sinew of her political existence, that mine of gold, which ever yields the richest treasures, and is worked by the numberless engines of British industry, and the prodigious mercantile genius of the whole nation. Were it possible to undermine this fundamental pillar of the British state ; or even to corrode it, and impair its energy and extent, then the enemies of that nation might fairly boast of having pared the claws of the British lion ; then modern Carthage would really totter, while her contemporaries, struck with amazement, would survey the gigantic task atchieved, and the commercial world would be shaken to its foundation.’

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\* The *translator's* preface is signed J. W. H.

† See Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 21.

Dr. R. maintains that all the efforts of France, to impede and destroy our commerce, have completely failed, and that they cannot in any serious degree succeed in future. He remarks that we reap the vast profits of the Greenland, whale, and seal fisheries, and of the herring fishery on our own coasts, without a competitor; for that Hamburg, Altona, Gluckstadt, Bremen, all Holland, and the inhabitants of the French coast bordering on the German ocean, are wholly excluded from this lucrative traffic.

From the vicinity of the frozen sea, all along the coast of Norway, in the Baltic sea and its harbours, our commerce meets with no obstacles, and the mercantile intercourse is carried on without interruption. Excluded from the Elbe and the Weser, it has taken a direct and unmolested course by way of Husum, and on the Eider, through Tonningen; and it suffers not the least detriment or loss on account of this circuitous conveyance. By the way of Tonningen, Germany and all the countries of middle Europe receive large quantities of British exports.

Russia is supplied from England with West India produce, with British manufactures, and with various East India goods. The exports from Russia to England consist very much of raw materials.

The English have an unrestricted communication with their markets along the coast of East Friesland, Dollart, Embden, and the Ems. On the whole Dutch coast from the Dollart beyond Flushing, the British carry on indirect commercial dealings, and they 'have every facility of getting their cargoes unshipped from the inhabitants themselves.' The French lately seized goods on the frontiers of Holland to the value of £80,000, but they were afterward all restored; and the Dutch, we are told, have found it impossible to prevent a direct communication with England by way of Rotterdam.—'Though the British are excluded in the Mediterranean, along the whole line of coast from the French ports as far down as Naples and the Straights of Sicily, and from the Italian ports on the Adriatic, Venice and Trieste excepted, those of Istria, Dalmatia, and Albania still remain open to them.'

Dr. R. states that we have the greatest share in the lucrative trade of the Levant: but this account does not agree with that which has been given by Mr. Jackson, who appears to be completely informed on the subject. See our last Review, p. 65.

The surface of our Indian territories, the fertility of which is here discussed, is said to exceed three times that of the United Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland; and our im-

ports from Hindostan are stated to yield a profit of £2,400,000. Europe is said to purchase tea from the Company, to the quantity of 24 millions of pounds.

From our possessions in North America, which include Canada with its extensive bays, the important river of St. Lawrence, Newfoundland, and the whole coast as far up as Labradore, we derive our stores of valuable furs, a quantity of ship timber, copper, wax, &c.; and we must add to these advantages the profitable fisheries near Newfoundland, and in other bays in these parts.—The extensive fishery and coal trade from Newcastle form the real nursery of English seamen.

From the confines of Canada, as far as Louisiana, the territory of the United States of America extends. The British commerce is now most closely connected with that of the Americans; and large capitals belonging to the English are employed in American enterprizes. English houses of the first respectability form partnerships with American houses, and so do the Americans in England. The very nation once dependent on the mother-country now acts with her, though independent, under one firm.

In drawing to a close his observations on this topic, the author introduces the following facts and reflections:

‘There is scarcely a single commodity, a single article of luxury or convenience, that is not manufactured by the English, with the most consummate skill, and in the highest state of perfection.

‘The soil of Britain does not indeed produce a quantity of corn sufficient for the exigencies of its inhabitants; and for this reason it becomes necessary, every year, to remit large sums of money for its purchase to the ports in the Baltic; but then nature has indemnified that country with her rich coal mines, the envy of foreigners, who by this means become, in a certain manner, tributary to England; for the English parliament has laid a considerable duty on the exportation of coals, which foreign nations are obliged to pay.

‘A nation whose active commerce is so preponderating, compared with its passive trade, who is herself the ruler of the most numerous and fertile colonies in all parts of the world: a nation that sends the produce of her industry to every zone; that has so formidable a navy, and so wide spread a navigation; a nation, that by her activity and the genius of her citizens, manufactures its numberless articles of merchandise, infinitely finer, in much superior workmanship, in far more exquisite goodness, than all other nations, without exception; and that is able to sell them infinitely cheaper, owing to her admirable engines, her machines; and her native coal; a nation, whose credit and whose capital is so immense as that of England, surely such a nation must render all foreigners tributary; and her very enemies must help to bear the immense burthen of her debt and the enormous accumulation of her taxes.’

Dr. Reinhard expresses a very favourable opinion of our state of defence. The difficulties which the French must find in effecting a landing, in consequence of our naval superiority, are placed in a very strong light; and our physical means of resistance are also stated with ability and correctness. The picture of our resources is drawn in glowing and vivid colours; and the effect of the whole is calculated to inspire the British bosom with confidence. It is, however, to be observed that this tract was penned before the recent unparalleled change which has been effected in the situation of the continent. Yet, in spite of that distressing reverse, occasioned by a series of ill concerted measures, the dangers of which had been predicted, the view of our situation given by this well informed stranger suggests considerations that should check despondency; and if it be still in the power of human wisdom and exertion to maintain our independence, and a large portion of our consideration, we may hope that the strong and united government which we have just seen instituted will accomplish this momentous object. We trust that no minor considerations, nor any individual feelings, will interfere with the grand points which now solicit the whole attention and the most vigorous efforts of our Ministers. They have taken the helm at a moment of extreme peril; and the safety of the state-vessel and of the crew is in their hands. In the conduct which they may adopt, and in the consequences which may result, much allowance should unquestionably be granted to them, on recollecting the circumstances under which they have commenced their charge of the ship: but, since they *have* assumed the office of pilots, they are deeply responsible for the exercise of every particle of their combined skill, judgment, and strength. To use a vulgar but expressive phrase, their's must be "*a long pull, a strong pull, and a pull ALTOGETHER.*"—*Verbum sat.*

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ART. IX. *Biographical Memoirs of Lord Viscount Nelson, &c. &c.* With Observations, critical and explanatory. By John Charnock, Esq., F. S. A., Author of the *Biographia Navalis, &c.* 8vo. pp. 500. 10s. 6d. Boards. Symonds. 1806.

ALTHOUGH the prowess of the British Navy has been eminently distinguished for some centuries, it has shone with rapidly increased lustre within our own times; and among the luminaries who have contributed to this brilliant reputation, the star of *Horatio Nelson* has displayed a dazzling effulgence. With eagerness, therefore, the public will un-

doubtedly receive the best tribute to his fame; a concentrated record of his exploits. Since his lamented fall, more than one biographer has announced his intention of engaging in this grateful duty; and Mr. Charnock has already presented to us the labours of his active pen. The representative of the hero's family, however, has given notice that a publication is preparing, in well qualified hands, and under his superintendence, which shall adequately blazon the deeds of the warrior, and fully satisfy the wishes of the reader. In the mean time, the work before us may be received as introductory to the more ample details, and as a temporary gratification of the public feelings.

Mr. Charnock, indeed, is becomingly sensible of the 'weight of the task' which he has undertaken, and modestly characterizes his performance as little more than a faithful collection and report of much authentic intelligence, which had been before widely scattered under our view. 'An enthusiastic attachment to the naval service' in course attracted his particular attention to the prominent actions of a Nelson; and a personal acquaintance with this regretted officer formed a still more powerful stimulus to the present attempt. The knowledge resulting from this individual intercourse, which took place at the house of the late Capt. Locker, Lieut. Governor of Greenwich Hospital, and the correspondence of the hero with this last mentioned gentleman, which is here given, impart perhaps its chief merit to the volume; and certainly constitute that which it possesses on the score of originality. The "great deeds" of *Nelson* proclaimed themselves in deafening thunder, and were chronicled as they occurred, for the inspection of an admiring world. It is therefore principally in the line of private information that the reader now wants to be gratified; it is with regard to the sentiments, the feelings, and the motives of the *man*, rather than the character of the *officer*, that we wish for additional knowledge.—Let us be allowed to recommend a *proper discretion*, but no *undue concealment*, on this head, to the authorized biographers of this extraordinary commander. Some parts of his public conduct\*, while in the Mediterranean, subsequently to the battle of the Nile, may perhaps be open to historic scrutiny; and some features in his private connections may demand a delicate exhibition, though they should receive no unfaithful colouring, nor be "veiled in the obscurity" of unmerited shade. The actions of *Horatio Nelson* have been, are, and long will be, held up, on lofty eminence, as incitements to imitation;—*if*—for we speak with hesitation, and only from general ideas—*if* any part of them, public or private,

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\* With respect to the Neapolitans,

has been tarnished by that alloy to which all human excellence is liable, let it be equally exhibited as a warning. No great authorities should ever be quoted in justification of errors; nor should extraordinary merit ever be allowed to shrink from the investigation of partial failings.—Mr. Charnock, however, boasts of his security from the dangers of attempting this discrimination of character, in delineating a man in whose portrait he asserts no such features occur; and by him, therefore, no such rigid duty is fulfilled.

As the services of Lord Nelson were peculiarly splendid and important, so was his elevation unusually rapid and distinguished. Surrounded by the rays of glory, and glittering with the decorations of rank, he perished at the early age of 47: at an age in which, in ordinary times, officers in our service have scarcely been permitted to hoist the flag which its rules allot to seniority, or have had the opportunity of snatching the ensigns of eminence from Fortune, with eager but successful hands. With Fortune, he was certainly a favorite: but the more we contemplate him, the more we are convinced that he was endowed with uncommon talents. He united judgment to enterprize, perseverance to ardor, coolness to undaunted courage, and the most ample knowledge of his profession to the most enthusiastic passion for its honours. Of his presence of mind, various examples have been cited; to its effects in the battle of Copenhagen, much, indeed, was due; and more, we believe, than has been commonly assigned to it. Many anecdotes are also related which prove his great humanity and benevolence. Of his *piety*, which has been much celebrated, and which he rather peculiarly introduced in his official dispatches, we speak not in this place: it is in our minds a characteristic of too much sacredness to be ascribed without the fullest warranty, and without the undeviating testimony of the purest conduct.

For the principal particulars in this volume, historically considered, Mr. Charnock has been indebted to gazettes, and to a monthly publication intitled *the Naval Chronicle*, to which Lord Nelson himself had communicated a sketch of his own life. We shall abstract a summary of its leading events, and subjoin some quotations from his correspondence with Captain Locker, which appear to us to be interesting as illustrative of character.

Horatio Nelson was the third son of the Rev. Edmund Nelson, Rector of Burnham Thorpe, Norfolk, and Catharine Suckling, and was born 29th Sept. 1758. When 12 years old, he was entered on board of the *Raisonable* of 64 guns, commanded by his maternal uncle Capt. Maurice Suckling;

and on that ship being paid off, he went to the West Indies, in a trading vessel, but returned to his uncle on his appointment to the *Triumph* guardship. It is here worthy of remark that, at this time, his partiality for the navy had not manifested itself: on the contrary, observes Mr. Charnock,

‘It is said, and from such authority as can scarcely be doubted, that he had imbibed the strongest prejudice against serving in the navy, and that it was not without much difficulty that his uncle, than whom no person could be better qualified for such a task, was able to remove it. Gentle precept, and the force of example, having completed this purpose, this young navigator gave the earliest proofs of that enthusiastic attachment to his profession which very rarely fails to create renown, and lead to the highest honours. It is reported, as an anecdote, that his uncle, who appears from this circumstance to have obtained very considerable knowledge of the workings of the human heart, as well as to have made himself completely master of his nephew’s peculiar turn of mind, carried his point by judiciously appearing to place a confidence in him far beyond what his years and short time of service might be thought to justify, but which his conduct uniformly proved he fully merited.’

On Capt. Phipps’s appointment to an expedition to the North Pole, in 1772, young Nelson exchanged his inactive situation for this hazardous service, and embarked as Coxswain to Capt. Lutwidge of the *Carcase*. His conduct, on this duty, gained him much credit and confidence. On the return of his ship to England, he sailed for the East Indies in the *Seahorse*, Capt. Farmer: but the climate of Asia disagreeing with his constitution, which even then manifested that delicacy which it ever betrayed, Commodore Hughes sent him home in the *Dolphin* frigate. Recovering in his native air, he was appointed acting lieutenant of the *Worcester*, 26th Dec. 1776; and during a winter’s cruise in the Bay of Biscay, he so thoroughly acquired the good opinion of his commander Capt. Mark Robinson, that the latter is ‘said to have declared to his friends, that notwithstanding Mr. Nelson’s youth, he being then little more than eighteen years old, he felt himself quite as easy in the most boisterous night, when it was his turn to command the watch, as when it was that of the oldest officer in the ship.’ He passed his examination 8th April 1777, with such credit that he was immediately commissioned as 2d lieutenant of the *Lowestoffe* frigate, Capt. W. Locker, destined to a three years’ station at Jamaica. On arriving at that island, Capt. L. selected Lieut. Nelson for the command of a schooner, fitted as a tender to the *Lowestoffe*; in which ‘he distinguished himself on a variety of occasions.’ In 1779, Sir Peter Parker removed him as 3d lieutenant into his flag ship, the *Bristol*; in which he rose to be first in that rank; and whence he was promoted

promoted to the command of the *Badger* sloop of war. On the 11th of June 1779 he was advanced to post rank, and to the *Hinchinbroke* of 20 guns. At the commencement of 1780, he went in the naval command of an expedition against the Spanish settlers on the river St. John in the Gulph of Mexico, and contributed most essentially to its success. He was next promoted to the *Janus* of 44 guns: but ill health obliged him to return to England, as a passenger in the *Lion*, Captain (now Admiral) Cornwallis. The waters of Bath having much recruited him, he was commissioned in Aug. 1781 to the *Albemarle* of 28 guns; cruized during the winter in the North Seas; and was sent in April 1782 with a convoy to Newfoundland. Having proceeded afterward to Quebec, and New York, he sailed from the latter place in November to the West Indies with Lord Hood, returned to England and was paid off in July following, and made a visit to France during the hours of peace.

In spring 1784, he went in the *Boreas*, of 28 guns, to the Leeward islands, as a cruizer on the peace establishment.

' This service (says Mr. C.) was by no means so easy, as the public situation of affairs appeared to promise. The Americans, after having erected themselves into free and independant states, were extravagant enough to expect, notwithstanding their disseverment from the mother-country, they should continue to enjoy the same privileges which they possessed when considered as colonies to it. The governors and inhabitants of the West India islands supported this absurd claim; and Captain Nelson having, in consequence of his adopting a firm opinion of its impropriety, declared that he would seize all American vessels, which he found trading contrary to the rules established for that purpose with foreigners, was treated with much asperity.

' In a short time afterwards he demonstrated that his declaration was not an empty threat, intended merely to intimidate, and never to be followed up by the act itself. Having accordingly seized several American vessels which he chanced to meet with, the outcry against him rose to so great an height throughout all the British islands and colonies in that quarter, that he was constrained, for a considerable time, to continue on board his ship, without going even on shore, fearing he might meet with some unpleasant conduct, which his spirit could neither brook, nor the station he held would permit him to endure. Much however as his behaviour might be reprobated by the parties interested, Captain Nelson had the satisfaction to find it approved, in the most unqualified manner, by his sovereign, and his native country. He continued on the same station, till the month of June, 1787, and was then ordered to England; the term usually allotted to ships employed on such service, during the time of peace, being expired. In the month of March preceding, he married Mrs. Frances Herbert Nesbit, widow of Dr. Nesbit, daughter to William Herbert, Esquire, senior judge, and niece to Mr. Herbert, president of



of the same island; his royal highness Prince William Henry, who served on the same station as Captain of the *Pegasus*, gracing the nuptials with his presence, and acting as father to the truly amiable lady.

The *Boreas* being now paid off, Capt. Nelson passed five years of retirement at his father's parsonage house, which that gentleman assigned to him for his residence.—On the rupture with France in 1793, he was appointed to the *Agamemnon* of 64 guns, and sailed to the Mediterranean in May. Here he was on the theatre of his future glory, and now commenced that series of splendid actions with which all the civilized world has been astonished.—On this station,

‘ Captain Nelson continued for three years: foremost in the hour of danger and difficulty, while at the same time his bravery was happily mingled with the most consummate prudence, and profoundest judgment, it became rather a matter of public wonder, if any official report of an encounter passed him over in silence. He was entrusted as a negotiator, employed as a naval partizan, as a superintendant of transports, and as a general officer on shore; in all which multifarious offices he acquitted himself with such credit, that it were a difficult matter to decide on what occasion his services shone most conspicuously; whether at Genoa, or in his long communications with General De Vins; on the coast of Italy, where he was so frequently employed in expeditions against the French flotillas, which sought their safety by running into creeks, whither they thought it impossible gallantry could pursue them; on the coast of Corsica, where the embarkation and landing of troops were so happily confided to him; or at the sieges of Bastia and Calvi, where he displayed the knowledge of an able engineer, joined to the experience of a consummate general. It was on the latter occasion he had the misfortune to lose the sight of his right eye; a shot from one of the enemy's batteries having struck the ground near the spot where he stood, and driven up the small gravel with such violence, that a minute particle of it struck him on that tender part, and produced the irremediable mischief, which even his enemies must have in some sort lamented. In the encounters which took place in the months of March and July, 1795, between the French and the British fleets, which latter was at that time commanded by Lord Hotham, he no less eminently distinguished himself, and in the first of those naval skirmishes had the happiness of contributing to the partial success then obtained, by the spirited attack he made on the 12th, in conjunction with the *Instant* frigate, on the *Ca Ira*, of eighty guns.’

After Admiral Hotham's partial action of the 17th of July 1795, Capt. Nelson was sent with a light squadron to destroy the French convoys of provisions and stores in the bay of Allassio, which he executed. In April 1796, Sir John Jervis, (now Earl of St. Vincent) who had superseded Admiral Hotham, promoted Capt. N. to the temporary rank of Commodore, with a distinguishing pendant; in May, he removed  
into

into the Captain, of 74 guns; and in August, his rank was made permanent, and a captain was appointed under him in that ship.

‘The services on which he was employed, till nearly the close of the year, were extremely important, although they afforded him no opportunity of displaying that brilliancy of character which has so uninterruptedly marked the greater part of the enterprizes in which he was engaged. The blockade of Leghorn, the capture of Porto Ferrajio, together with the island of Caprea, and the evacuation of Bastia, were each of them employments that required the most consummate abilities, the most spirited activity, and the soundest judgment; and where all were equally conspicuous, it would be derogating from one species of merit to bestow any particular commendation on another.

‘After having convoyed the British troops, which had been employed in garrisoning the island of Corsica, to Porto Ferrajio, Commodore Nelson proceeded to St. Fiorenzo bay, where he rejoined the commander in chief, and immediately afterwards accompanied him to Gibraltar. In the month of December, he received instructions to remove his broad pendant on board *La Minerve*, a frigate of thirty-two guns, commanded by Captain George Cockburn; and the *Blanche* frigate, of the same force, commanded by Captain Preston, being put under his orders, he was directed to proceed to Porto Ferrajio, for the purpose of conveying from thence the depot of naval stores which had been formed there, during the time the British fleet was stationed in the Mediterranean, to Gibraltar, where they were much wanted, in consequence of the change of station necessarily occasioned by the commencement of the war with Spain. While on his passage thither, the commodore had the fortune to fall in with two large Spanish frigates, during the night of the 19th of December. The commanding ship carried a poop light, and was immediately attacked by Mr. Nelson, who at the same time directed the *Blanche* to engage her consort. The encounter between the commodore and his antagonist commenced about forty minutes past ten at night; and after an unremitted as well as most spirited contest, which continued nearly three hours, the enemy's ship was compelled to surrender, having had one hundred and sixty-four men killed and wounded. Her mizen mast had fallen in the action; her main and fore masts were also so severely wounded that both of them went away on her first attempt to carry sail after her surrender. The prize was named *La Sabina*, a frigate of the first class, mounting forty guns; those on her main deck, being twenty-eight in number, were eighteen-pounders.’

Capt. Preston also silenced his antagonist: but her capture was prevented, and the *Sabina* finally retaken, by three other Spanish ships which now bore down; and from which the *Minerve* and *Blanche* escaped with difficulty.—Having accomplished the object of his mission, the Commodore sailed from Porto Ferrajo on the 29th of January 1797, with Sir Gilbert Elliott,

Elliott, late Viceroy of Corsica, and his suite. He joined the Admiral on the 13th of February, having been chased by the Spanish fleet, and resumed his station in the Captain just in time to prepare for the memorable action of the 14th, off St. Vincent's. The personal exertions of Commodore Nelson, in this combat, were so extraordinary, that we shall rather trespass on our limits than omit his own modest account of them, as communicated by him to Capt. Locker :

" At one, P. M., the Captain having passed the sternmost of the enemy's ships, which formed their van, and part of their centre, consisting of seventeen sail of the line, they on the larboard, we on the starboard tack, the admiral made the signal to tack in succession ; but perceiving all the Spanish ships to bear up before the wind, evidently with an intention of forming their line, going large, and joining their separated divisions, at that time engaged with some of our centre ships, or flying from us—to prevent either of their schemes from taking place, I ordered the ship to be wore, and passing between the Diadem and Excellent, at a quarter past one o'clock, was engaged with the headmost, and, of course, leewardmost of the Spanish division. The ships which I knew were the Santissima Trinidad, of one hundred and thirty-six guns, San Josef, of one hundred and twelve, Salvador del Mundo, of one hundred and twelve, San Nicholas, eighty ; another first-rate, and a seventy-four, names unknown.

" I was immediately joined and most nobly supported, by the Culloden, Captain Troubridge. The Spanish fleet, not wishing, I suppose, to have a decisive battle, hauled to the wind on the larboard tack, which brought the ships above mentioned to be the leewardmost and sternmost ships in their fleet. For near an hour I believe (but I do not pretend to be correct as to time), did the Culloden and Captain support this not only apparently but really unequal contest ; when the Blenheim passing between us and the enemy, gave us a respite, and sickened the Dons. At this time the Salvador del Mundo, and San Isidro, dropped astern, and were fired into in a masterly style by the Excellent, Captain Collingwood, who compelled the San Isidro to hoist English colours ; and I thought the large ship, Salvador del Mundo, had also struck : but Captain Collingwood, disdainful of the parade of taking possession of a vanquished enemy, most gallantly pushed up with every sail set, to save his old friend and messmate, who was to appearance in a critical state. The Blenheim being ahead, the Culloden crippled and astern, the Excellent ranged up within two feet of the San Nicholas, giving a most tremendous fire. The San Nicholas luffing up, the San Josef fell on board her, and the Excellent passing on for the Santissima Trinidad, the Captain resumed her station abreast of them, and close alongside. At this time the Captain having lost her fore top-mast, not a sail, shroud, nor rope left, her wheel away, and incapable of further service in the line or in chase, I directed Captain Miller to put the helm a-starboard, and calling for the boarders, ordered them to board. The soldiers of the sixty-ninth, with an alacrity which will ever do

them credit, and Lieutenant Pearson of the same regiment, were almost the foremost on this service. The first man who jumped into the enemy's mizzen-chains was Captain Berry, late my first lieutenant (Captain Miller was in the act of going also, but I directed him to remain); he was supported by our spritsail yard, which hooked in the mizzen rigging. A soldier of the sixty ninth regiment having broken the upper quarter gallery window, I jumped in myself, and was followed by others as fast as possible. I found the cabin doors fastened, and some Spanish officers fired their pistols; but having broke open the doors, the soldiers fired, and the Spanish brigadier (commodore, with a distinguishing pendant) fell, as retreating to the quarter-deck. I pushed immediately onwards for the quarter-deck, where I found Captain Berry in possession of the poop and the Spanish ensign hauling down. I passed with my people, and Lieutenant Pearson, on the larboard gang-way to the fore-castle, where I met two or three Spanish officers, prisoners to my seamen: they delivered me their swords. A fire of pistols or musquets opening from the admiral's stern-gallery of the San Josef, I directed the soldiers to fire into her stern, and calling to Captain Miller, ordered him to send more men into the San Nicholas, and directed my people to board the first rate, which was done in an instant; Captain Berry assisting me into the main chains. At this moment a Spanish officer looked over the quarter-deck rail, and said they surrendered. From this most welcome intelligence, it was not long before I was on the quarter-deck, where the Spanish captain, with a bow, presented me his sword, and said the admiral was dying of his wounds. I asked him on his honour, if the ship surrendered. He declared she was; on which I gave him my hand, and desired him to call on his officers and ship's company and tell them of it; *and on the quarter-deck of a Spanish first-rate, extravagant as the story may seem, did I receive the swords of vanquished Spaniards, which as I received I gave to William Fearnley, one of my bargemen, who put them with the greatest sang froid under his arm.* I was surrounded by Captain Berry, Lieutenant Pearson of the sixty-ninth regiment, John Sykes, John Thompson, Francis Cooke (all old Agamemmons), and several other brave men, seamen and soldiers. Thus fell these ships.

“ N. B. In boarding the San Nicholas, I believe we lost about seven killed and ten wounded; and about twenty Spaniards lost their lives by a foolish resistance. None were lost I believe in boarding the San Josef.”

Commodore Nelson was now created a Knight of the Bath and Rear Admiral of the Blue. In May, his flag being removed to the Theseus, he was appointed by the Earl of St. Vincent to the command of the blockading squadron off Cadiz; and while on this duty, he was engaged in his boat, during the night, in a severe contest with the Spanish commander of the gun-boats, who was subdued. Shortly afterward, he was detached on the unfortunate expedition against Teneriffe, in which he lost his right arm, by a cannon-shot; and from which the

the whole party re-embarked only through the clemency of the Spaniards. He now returned to England, for the restoration of his health; and on the 19th of December he again hoisted his flag, on board the *Vanguard*, and was ordered again to the Mediterranean. It was not till April 29. that he was able to rejoin Lord St. Vincent; and on the very next day he was dispatched with a small squadron to watch that armament of the enemy, which he was destined finally to destroy at the mouth of the Nile. Having been reinforced with ten more ships of the line, he commenced the extraordinary pursuit of Bonaparte's fleet, to Egypt, back to Sicily, and to Egypt again; finding them at length in the bay of Aboukir, and being rewarded for his anxiety and toil by the celebrated victory in which he took and destroyed eleven out of thirteen ships of the line. The Rear-Admiral received a wound in his forehead during this action, which was at first regarded as mortal, but which proved to be only superficial, though severe.—For this service he was created Baron Nelson of the Nile, &c. and received a large addition to his former pension.

From Aboukir, Lord Nelson returned to Naples, on the 22d of September, where he was welcomed with rapture.—In the cause of the Neapolitan monarch, the exertions of the British Admiral were now conspicuous. Italy was nearly overrun by the French Armies, and that King was obliged to seek refuge on board of the *Vanguard*. During these events, *i. e.* in May 1799, Lord Nelson was advanced to the rank of Rear-Admiral of the Red, and shifted his flag to the *Foudroyant*.—In a few months, his vigorous efforts, combined with an allied force, drove the French from the Neapolitan territories, and from the Papal states; Rome itself being evacuated by them in consequence of the blockade of Civita Vecchia by Commodore Trowbridge. The Sicilian King, thus restored to his throne, rewarded his deliverer by the grant of an estate in that country, of the annual value of 3000*l.* sterling, with the title of Duke of Bronte.

Malta, blockaded by Captain Ball, was starved into a surrender; and in coming to and escaping from this island, the two ships of the line which fled from Aboukir fell into the hands of Lord Nelson's cruizers. •

The health of the noble Admiral being now again much impaired, he returned to England by Trieste through Germany, and arrived in London, Nov. 8, 1800.—In the following January, he was advanced to the rank of Vice-Admiral of the Blue; and in March he sailed in the *St. George* of 98 guns, as second in command under Sir Hyde Parker, for the purpose of opposing the Swedes, Danes, and Russians. On the 2d of April

April 1801, Lord Nelson having been intrusted by Sir Hyde with the van squadron, and having shifted his flag to the *Elephant*, of 74 guns, that terrible conflict took place between the British and the Danes, before Copenhagen, which ended in the defeat of the latter, and the dissolution of the Northern Confederacy. Lord Nelson declared that this encounter was the most tremendous that he had ever witnessed; and his critical proposition for a truce alone perhaps secured the fortune of the day. The Vice-Admiral was now advanced to the dignity of Viscount;—and in July, he returned to England, in very ill health.

The invasion of this country being now much threatened, Lord Nelson was appointed to the command of a squadron for the defence of our southern coasts, and for the annoyance of the enemy. In this situation, he superintended some desperate but unsuccessful attacks on the flotilla at Boulogne.

A temporary peace now suspended the operations of our hero: but, on the recommencement of hostilities, he resumed his laborious and hazardous duties, and sailed for Gibraltar in the *Victory*, of 100 guns, 20th May 1803, to watch the armament at Toulon. A long scene of inactivity here awaited him; for he could find no enemy to face him. The French Admiral, however, at length effected his escape in January 1805; arrived at Cadiz; received a re-inforcement; and proceeded to the West Indies. In vain did Nelson seek him on the shores of Sicily and of Egypt, till he obtained better information; and in vain did he then chase him through the Leeward islands. The terror of his name drove the combined fleets back to Europe; and Lord Nelson arrived at Portsmouth on the 18th of August with only two ships; having detached most of his squadron to join the Channel fleet. In September he again sailed, to take the command of the force off Cadiz, in which port the combined squadrons then lay. On the 21st of October was fought the most extraordinary naval battle which our annals record; the enemy losing 20 out of 33 ships, opposed to only 27; and the victors having to mourn the death of their conquering chief! His remains were brought to England, and interred in the Cathedral of St. Paul with the most magnificent obsequies, at the public expence, Jan. 9, 1806.

Some quotations from Lord Nelson's correspondence shall now be introduced.—His first and his last letters to Captain Locker will form a striking comparison; the first written when he was a Lieutenant in that gentleman's ship and the Captain was on shore, in ill health: the other, penned when the writer had attained the most distinguished honors in his profession:

“My

"My most worthy Friend, *Lowestoffe, at Sea, Aug. 12, 1777.*

"I am exceedingly obliged to you for the good opinion you entertain of me, and will do my utmost that you may have no occasion to change it. I hope God Almighty will be pleased to spare your life; for your own sake, and that of your family; but should any thing happen to you (which I sincerely pray to God may not), you may be assured that nothing shall be wanting on my part, for the taking care of your effects, and delivering safe to Mrs. Locker such of them, as may be thought proper not to be disposed of. You mentioned the word "consolation" in your letter—I shall have a very great one, when I think I have served faithfully the best of friends, and the most amiable of women.

"All the services I can render to your family, you may be assured shall be done, and shall never end but with my life; and may God Almighty of his great goodness keep, bless and preserve you and your family, is the most fervent prayer of your faithful servant,

"HORATIO NELSON.

"P. S. Though this letter is not couched in the best manner, be assured it comes from one entirely devoted to your service. H. N."

"My dear Friend, *Naples, July 15, 1799.*

"Although I am so ill that I can scarcely sit up, yet I will not let the courier go off, without assuring you that all your kindnesses to me are fresh in memory; I remember all my friends; I forgive, from my heart, my envious enemies. May God Almighty grant you, my revered friend, that health and happiness which has never yet been obtained by

"Your affectionate grateful friend,

"NELSON.

"My friend Troubridge is a general officer."

These letters evince the steadiness of Lord Nelson's friendship and gratitude, and are both expressive of those religious sentiments for which he was remarked. Another letter is also worthy of notice in the first of these points of view:

"My dear Friend, *Palermò, Feb. 9th, 1799.*

"I well know your own goodness of heart will make all due allowances for my present situation, in which truly I have not the time, or power to answer all the letters I receive at the moment; but you, my old friend, after twenty-seven years acquaintance, know that nothing can alter my attachment and gratitude to you; I have been your scholar. It was you who taught me to board a Frenchman, by your conduct when in the *Experiment*. It is you who always hold, "lay a Frenchman close and you will beat him;" and my only merit in my profession is being a good scholar. Our friendship will never end but with my life, but you have always been too partial to me.—

"I beg you will make my kindest remembrances to Miss Locker, and all your good sons, and believe me ever your faithful and affectionate friend,

"NELSON."

Several

Several letters relate to the subject of his early dispute respecting the Americans, which indicate the penetration, thought, and firmness that he ever manifested. Whether or not he was perfectly right, we cannot decide.—The whole of the correspondence displays the most friendly heart and the most active mind.—A great chasm occurs between 1797 and 1799, which entails silence concerning the Neapolitan transactions.

Lord Nelson's opinion of Corsica is strongly expressed :

' We have now done with Corsica ; I have seen the first, and the last of that kingdom : its situation certainly was most desirable for us, but the generality of its inhabitants are so greedy of wealth, and so jealous of each other, that it would require the patience of Job, and the riches of Cræsus to satisfy them : they say themselves they are only to be ruled, by the ruling power shooting all its enemies, and bribing all its friends. They already regret our departure from them, for no more silver harvest will come to their lot. I remember when we quitted Toulon we endeavoured to reconcile ourselves to Corsica ; now we are content with Elba—such things are : however, we have a fine port, and are at no expence for the government of the island.'

We could with satisfaction enter farther into the particulars with which this volume furnishes us : but it is time to arrest the pen, and to remember that we shall have other opportunities of adverting to the subject.

Mr. Charnock has much increased the size of his book, and, as most persons will probably think, has added to its value, by introducing biographical notices of all those eminent naval characters, whom the course of his narrative leads him to mention ; as well as by transcribing collateral documents relative to his hero, dispatches, parliamentary votes, speeches, &c. These subjoined memoirs, however, violate the unity and interrupt the progress of the Nelsonian details. He has also given plans of the actions off St. Vincent's, Aboukir, Copenhagen, and Trafalgar, a portrait of Lord Nelson, a view of the boat fight in which he was engaged, (a poor engraving,) and a fac simile of his hand writing.—As a literary composition, the work has been so hastily compiled that it is not a fair object of criticism : it is also too interesting in its contents to admit of this minor consideration.



**ART. X.** *A Compendium of Modern Husbandry, principally written during a Survey of Surrey, made at the Desire of the Board of Agriculture; illustrative also of the best Practices in the neighbouring Counties of Kent, Sussex, &c. In which is comprised an Analysis of Manures, shewing their Chemical Contents, and the proper Application of them to Soils and Plants of all Descriptions. Also an Essay on Timber, exhibiting a View of the increasing Scarcity of that important Article, with Hints on the Means of counteracting it; together with a variety of Miscellaneous Subjects peculiarly adapted to the present State of the internal Economy of the Kingdom. By James Malcolm, Land Surveyor to their Royal Highnesses the Prince of Wales, and the Dukes of York and Clarence. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 16s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1805.*

WE have perused with much satisfaction those county surveys which have been executed under the direction of the Board of Agriculture, because, in addition to such articles of information as more immediately belong to them, they contain the reflections and disquisitions of sensible men on a variety of interesting subjects; some of which are intimately connected with the morals and internal prosperity of the kingdom. A county is a large district, which presents to the diligent scientific examiner an extensive field of observation. Confined as his inquiry may appear at the first view, its necessary bearings and relations are so numerous, that he finds his business multiplying on his hands and branching into diverse channels as he advances. Agriculture, strictly speaking, merely respects the cultivation of the earth: but it is impossible to study this important department of human industry, without considering for whom and by whom it is conducted; we must advert to the state of property, to the condition of proprietors, occupiers, and labourers; and of course to those customs, practices, and laws which regulate the different parts of the social machine.

An agricultural survey places before us the capabilities of nature in conjunction with the efforts of man, and has for its object the improvement of the district. Reporters, however, on these occasions, are very prone to indulge in speculations of amelioration and gain, without duly appreciating obstacles and contingencies; so that the practical farmer, who is obliged to contend with ungenial soils, variable elements, and the perverseness and villainy of human agents, rarely is able to realize those golden visions which the calculator, by the aid of generalities, pictures to the eye of hope. May not also the political economist inadvertently mislead Government as well as individuals, by over-rating our territorial resources and productiveness?

ductiveness? By fiscal experiments on agriculture, a minister might destroy "the hen that lays the golden egg." The improvement of a considerable portion of the country is a work of time; the return from farming capitals is slow; and we must patiently wait for, not rashly seize, those benefits which a state may expect to derive from the soil. Farmers are certainly fearful that the Information, which is so industriously collecting, will be disadvantageous to their interests: but we trust that their suspicions are groundless. Mr. Malcolm, with his brother Reporters, professes his object to be 'to make bad farmers good ones,' and to render them truly alive to their own as well as to the general welfare. What success he will obtain, we shall not, any more than himself, presume to determine; nor how far his declaration of 'a want of talents' will plead his excuse for publishing three large volumes.

The plan, on which those reports proceeded that were professedly composed for the Board of Agriculture, is not followed on the present occasion. Mr. Malcolm has not confined himself to an account of Surrey, nor to the limits of a single volume: but, by the introduction of a variety of subjects, he has endeavoured to render his performance generally useful. We shall advert to some particulars which respect the county of Surrey, and also to the supplemental matter.

Mr. M. does not appear to have taken any pains to ascertain the exact quantity of surface which the county contains, but in one short sentence states that 'its greatest length from east to west is about 39 miles; its circumference 146 miles, and considered as an oblong square it contains 481,947 statute acres.' The proportion which the uncultivated parts bear to those that are cultivated is not given; and instead of a large map, which if accurately drawn would be of singular utility, we are presented with one which measures about 10 inches by 8, and is fit only for a lady's fan. It is indeed to be lamented that the Board of Agriculture should have allowed such miserable maps to be given with the County Reports; and this hint will be a public benefit if it should fortunately induce the Board in future to attend to the circumstance.

On the climate of Surrey, it is observed that

'Beyond Kingston, until you reach Guildford, and on the north-west side of the road, the country is more flat, the air is mild, somewhat moist, but not wet; on the south east side, the land is more elevated for about six or seven miles across, and the air is keener and dry. From Godalming to Haslemere, to the left, it partakes of humidity; to the right as far as Farnham it is dry, but rather cold; and thus continues more or less so to Bagshot, with the exception of the country about Worplesdon and Bishley, which is more flat, strong, humid, and cold; the reason of this diversity will naturally enough

appear when we come to speak of the soil and its situation. Upon the whole, however, the climate of Surrey may with great propriety be said to be congenial to the health and longevity of man, and to the growth of vegetation, of which many remarkable instances might be given. It possesses a superior advantage to Middlesex, by the long continuance of the south west winds, which blow the smoke of London to the north and north east, and consequently from this county; and hence it is that so many physicians, when their patients require to be moved into the country for air, send them almost uniformly into Surrey.

When from climate Mr. M. proceeds to notice the soil and situation of Surrey, he descants on its rich and varied landscapes, and enumerates those spots which are celebrated for the beauty of their scenery:

‘It is to be understood that in each of the divisions of the county, the soil varies from a sand to a clay, from a chalk to a sand, and to a clay; but such as I have described appears to be very much the character of each division of the county. From this complexion, both of the air, soil, and situation, its various diversified formation into hill and dale, it will not be surprising that it should so abound with beautiful seats; no county can boast of so many. Some of the spots exhibit the most beautiful, some the most extensive, and others the most picturesque scenery, such as the chaste eye of even a Gilpin, or the more eccentric one of a Price, could not but admire. Who has seen the view from the Star and Garter, on Richmond Hill, without bestowing on it an expression of rapture? The terrace in Richmond Gardens, Box Hill, and Headly and Leith Hills near Dorking, Bansted Downs, Hind Hill, and Gratewood Hill near Godalming, Tilburster Hill near Godstone, are among the number that deserve commemoration; from the latter, on a clear day, an expanse of country to the east, south, and west opens to a prodigious extent.’

Among the principal places of the county, the author enumerates *Wonersh*, in order to give a lesson to cupidity, and to enforce that truly *golden maxim*, (we use the epithet in its strict sense,) “Honesty is the best policy.”

‘Wonersh (says he) which is now only a village, and near to which Lord Grantley has a seat, was formerly famed for its extensive manufactory of cloth, which was exported principally to the Canary Islands; but an over covetousness induced the manufacturers to strain their cloth farther than it would fairly bear, which of course so injured the reputation of it that they lost their customers, and the town dwindled away to its present state.’

The five rivers, of inferior magnitude to the Thames, which Mr. M. mentions as belonging to this county, are the Wandle, the Mole, the Way, the Lodden, and the Medway; which latter, though considered as a river of Kent, commences in the parish of Godstone, and offers its first tribute to Surrey. Besides

sides these, a small river rises at Ewell, turns several mills, and discharges itself into the Thames at Kingston.

A particular statement is given of the various manufactures which are prosecuted on the river Wandle, ("the blue transparent Vandalis" of Pope's Windsor Forest,) and it is indeed curious. This stream turns 38 mills within the short distance of about 10 miles, furnishes employment to more than 1700 people, and the capital embarked in the several manufactories is upwards of half a million sterling.

The vicinity of Surrey to the Metropolis occasions much of its soil to be employed not in the raising of crops but in the erection of houses; hence brick-making constitutes a prominent feature in this report; and here Mr. M. has introduced some remarks on the cause of that troublesome house-malady called the *dry rot*, which we shall transcribe for the consideration of gentlemen and builders:

‘The excellency of bricks consists chiefly in the first and last operation; for bricks made of good earth, and well tempered, become solid and ponderous, and therefore will take up a longer time in drying and burning than our common bricks seem to require. It is also to be observed that the well drying of bricks, before they are burned, prevents cracking and crumbling in their burning; for when the bricks are too wet, the parts are prevented from adhering together. The best way of ordering the fire is, to make it gentle at first, and increase it by degrees, as the bricks grow harder. If those several operations were properly and duly attended to, we should not see such immense waste, and so great a profusion of unburnt and half-burnt bricks, called *place bricks*, as we constantly find on the outsides of our modern clamps. For want of due precaution the fire never reaches them in an equable degree, and therefore they ought to be totally disregarded and laid aside; but modern ingenuity, and the tricks of the builders, have found out a mode of using them, less objectionable to be sure, than if they were consigned to the outside walls, though properly they are not fit to be used any where. It is necessary that the public should be informed, that these *place bricks* are now made use of in the inside walls of houses of every denomination, from the hut to the palace; and that they are soft, subject to very quick decay, and wherever wet can at all get to them, they moulder away with great rapidity; nor is this the only objection to them: they are subject to be acted upon by every change of the weather, so that the walls become damp, and the plastering discoloured, causing the bond timbers and plates to rot; and for want of equal solidity with the external bricks, the walls crack, the timbers swag, because the bearing on them cannot be then any where equally poised.

† The dampness which so often affects the inside walls is attempted to be palliated, or removed, by the introduction of what is called *battening*, whereby an opening or cavity is left between the brick work or plastering; but whoever has attentively observed the result of this invention, which in very many instances has fallen to my lot to notice, will see that the damp arising from these bricks engenders

mould, and is visible on the frame of the wood used in the battening; this mould is no doubt the secondary cause of the dry rot, since the origin must be in the bricks themselves.

‘That this is the case may be deduced from this fact, that wherever a quantity of those bricks is heaped up together, for any length of time, they will upon separation be found to have their bases covered with a fine white net-work, especially those which are nearest the bottom. Hard burnt sound bricks never have this net work grow upon them, let them lay as long as they may in any situation. This net work then is the plantulæ of mould. The origin and increase of mould is nearly in proportion to the heat of the atmosphere; its appearance and vegetation are never more sudden than during the summer, and the reason seems to be, that the heat of the weather necessarily draws out the redundant moisture from the bricks, for want of a due circulation or air. This moisture attaches itself to the outside of the bricks and there remains, the heat not being sufficient to dry it up, but enough perhaps to produce a degree of warmth; it enters into a slow but certain process of fermentation; and, passing through a state of acidity to putrefaction, is of itself sufficient to engender mould. Sometimes it is very long before mould is produced on particular substances, either from the absence of the seed, or the substance not being well adapted for its vegetation; while in others, the seed has been known to vegetate in three hours. The mould from being first white turns yellowish, and at last blackens. As it approaches a state of maturity, a kind of black dust falls from it, which is the seed of the plantulæ; a quantity of this dust constitutes the powder, which blackens the hand when touched. As this dust and seed is so fine and infinite, it spreads with a rapidity equal to the state and condition of the substances which may be fit to receive it, and hence may attack a whole building, and become the means of endangering and eventually destroying the most superb edifice.

‘Another fact will confirm this reasoning. In pulling down the most ancient houses not an atom of dry rot has been visible, but merely a decay in the timbers occasioned by age, because the bricks inside and out were alike hard and sound; but where modern ones have been erected on the old sites, a very few years have been sufficient to prove that symptoms of dry rot have manifested themselves in the basement from the great degree of humidity which prevails there.

‘If such bricks therefore are not timely removed, all the art of man cannot prevent the effects of the dry rot: it is the same with certain sorts of stone, which are always damp, be the weather what it may, and there the dry rot makes the greater havoc.’

In the section on the size of farms, the author pronounces 170 acres to be the average of the county. He here delivers his opinion on the subject of engrossing farms, and contends that the practice operates beneficially for the public. A general decision on this head is scarcely admissible: but Mr. M.’s verdict is not more acceptable to farmers, than his decision

sion against the claims of Cottagers to right of commonage must be to Lords of Manors. It is the miserable policy of the present day to make the poor "*poor indeed*;" and when we have driven the pauper to the work-house, we complain of the expence of his maintenance.

A copious section is devoted to the subject of Leases; in which Mr. M. endeavours to persuade those gentlemen, who have declared against granting leases, that their resolution has an injurious tendency:

'The only possible reason (says he) why agriculture has flourished so much in England, and has attained its present pre-eminent rank in the eyes of all Europe, and why our neighbours the French are so far behind us in the management of their farms, is the security which leases have given to our farmers; and the want of them accounts for the miserable situation which the French farmer has always been in. Reverse however the scene, and I do not hesitate to say that the French farmer will soon be in the situation that our farmers are now in, both as to management and as to property; while ours will revert fast to the present situation of the French, in spite of all our knowledge and capital. The French farmers, with a great many of whom I have conversed very lately, I am sensible do not want skill or inclination to exert it, and some have exerted themselves at all risks, but the consequences have been such as to prevent a repetition; but let their landed proprietors give them permanency and security in their farms by well adapted leases, and a little management or relaxation of rent for the deficiency of capital, and such is the quality of their soil and the favourableness of their climate, that they would soon make a different figure from what they do now.'

We must pass over a long chapter on Tithes, in which Mr. M. delivers his adverse opinion without reserve; and in which he is particularly severe on those clergymen who *trench* on his own province, by taking on themselves, in addition to their sacred function, 'the office of Land Stewards.' Men who obtain, without sowing or reaping, a tenth of the clear produce of the soil, might surely, as Mr. M. thinks, look without envy on the Land Steward's *poor* pickings. Perhaps, however, some clergymen have discovered that these pickings are not despicable; and that the gentlemen gatherers soon contrive to cast off that hateful thing yclept Poverty. Leaving this matter to be settled by the parties themselves, we proceed to that important chapter in which 'the Management of the Poor and their claims on society are considered;' and to Mr. M.'s views of this subject we heartily subscribe. He observes:

'Had the statute of Elizabeth been upon all occasions fully and unequivocally acted upon, there is no question at all but there would at this time have been fewer poor all over the kingdom; the class of people next above them would have been more comfortable and happy,

and the present enormous burthen of the poor's rates would have been a mere nothing.'

Now, however, the poor rates are very heavy; and most parishes are led by a junto who regulate all proceedings, and set all moderate opposition to their plans at defiance. The author thus proceeds:

'That which is the necessary business of every parishioner who pays to the rates is unfortunately the business of but few; we suffer an immense revenue to be levied upon us for two very laudable purposes, to relieve distress, and to encourage industry; and because those who are qualified by education and rank in life do not choose to give themselves the trouble of seeing to the disposal of this vast revenue, we suffer a great part, equal perhaps to one half of it, to be perverted and disposed of in the most profuse and shameful manner; which honestly and fairly applied to the purposes of this act of Elizabeth, the poor would be more decently and respectably maintained, and the other half would necessarily remain in the pockets of those from whom the whole is now with so much rigour, and often cruelty, exacted.

'Having given this subject a great deal of consideration, and having endeavoured to collect the sense of many very high characters in the county; a notion seems very prevalent, that it is more advantageous to employ the poor in various branches of manufacture at their own houses, than in places of more public reception, either as workhouses, houses of industry, &c. If they are people that can be trusted, I think the matter will admit of no doubt; this is not the opinion of Count Rumford, from whom I dissent with great deference; for it is but too true, that crowded workhouses, as they are constructed and conducted, in which are assembled the good and the bad, the old and the young, the healthy and unhealthy, are introductory of the most serious evils. If they are assembled in one room at work, their health, and not less their morals, are sure to be contaminated; the most horrid and depraved language is constantly assailing the ears of the honest, the young and weak minds, and with such examples eternally before them, they must almost be something more than human, if they escape the contagion. If they are sober and honest they will do more work at home than in any public institution whatever; and though they should earn less, yet as it is well known that seven or eight shillings at home will go as far as 18 or 20 shillings in the workhouse; there is every reason why the former mode should be preferred to the latter. But again, if the poor should at their own houses not earn so much as they may require to support their families, is it not much better to find them work, and pay them for what they do, than pay them for living in idleness?'

The great increase of public houses in this county is a serious and just ground of lamentation with the reporter, who attributes to this cause the increasing immorality and consequent wretchedness of the poor. Though the remark, with which Mr. M.'s section on the state of the poor concludes, has been frequently made,

made, we shall insert it, for the very reason that the clergyman gave for often preaching the same old sermon, viz. that he had not yet found his people the better for it :

‘ Charity consents to offer an asylum to the aged and infirm, let their former condition of life have been what it may, so that it has been honest ; but it is no charity to rob the industrious and sober, the little shop-keeper and the numerous tribe of people of scanty fortune, to support the idle and the profligate ; a distinction should be made therefore between such characters, sufficient to hold out a warning to all classes ; and not by giving them better fare, and better treatment than those, who are contributing to their support, can afford to give themselves ; if you do, it is the sure way to lessen that quantity of valuable appropriate labour, which is in a great degree the source of the riches of the state ; and it tends to add such an increase to the rates, as it is difficult to say at what point it may stop.’

It is stated that a scarcity of labourers appears throughout the county, particularly in harvest-time, which is attributed to the falling off in the number of the Irish who formerly afforded assistance at this season. No rural artificer is specified, excepting the two Corbets of Pile Hill, Woking, who are celebrated for the soundness and neatness of their thatching. If these men deserve the commendation of the author, we are happy in repeating it ; and we should deem it good policy, in all the county reporters, to give the names of the best wheelwrights, carpenters, smiths, &c. as a stimulus to genius and industry.

Under the head of *Implements*, the thrashing machine is warmly recommended : but, if Mr. M.'s arguments are not more correct than his classical strictures, this part of the work is of little value. Here unfortunately the author, forgetting his motto *Res spectatur non verba*, boldly ventures to criticise Dryden's translation of a passage in Virgil's *Georgics*, which is introduced in a *learned* history of the progress of thrashing. The two lines which are quoted from the first *Georgic* are not correct. If Mr. M., instead of confiding to his friend Mr. John Brown, had turned to the passage in Virgil, he would have found that three lines intervene between the first and the second in his quotation ; and that, though the mode of separating the grain from the straw is not the same as that which was used in Virgil's time, Dryden could not have better rendered *Tribula* than by *flail*. We shall leave, however, the *agrestibus arma* of the ancients, to attend to the author's panegyric on the Thrashing Machine.

‘ From the most minute attention bestowed on this subject, I am confident an extra quantity of corn, equal, in ordinary years, to £5 per cent, some go so far as to say equal to £10 per cent upon the whole



whole produce of the farm, in some cases to one shilling a bushel on wheat, and generally to twenty shillings per acre on the whole wheat crop, will be given by the thrashing machine more than by the flail; besides innumerable other advantages which accompany that machine. Indeed the loss by the flail has long been proverbial, and the best farmers were obliged to submit to losses of this nature, because they could not be remedied; but with the thrashing machine no corn need be lost, as every particle of grain is scutched off, when the machine is constructed upon right principles.'

The following is Mr. Malcolm's calculation of the amount of the probable savings which would accrue to the public, if these machines were universally used:

'The extent of ground, annually employed in Great Britain, in the raising of corn may be computed at seven millions five hundred thousand acres, and the average produce of the different grains at three quarters per acre, as below that increase no farmer can raise it with profit. Mr. Middleton, however, states the whole quantity of land in aration to be 14 millions, of which eight millions four hundred thousand are in corn, and beans; the five millions six hundred thousand being in clover, rye, grass, one year's ley, turnips, and other roots, and fallow. I think however this quantity is overcharged, as well as that the other is underrated, as will be hereafter shewn.

'The produce of three quarters per acre is as nearly however correct as the nature of the subject will admit. According to Sir John Sinclair's hypothesis, he supposed there were only five millions of acres annually employed in raising of grain, but this must certainly be erroneous; for if the population of the island be ten millions, the produce of these acres would be far below what is required for the support of that number of people, independent of what is necessary for the feeding of horses, and seed for the next crop.

'In the reprinted survey of the county of Stafford, is a pretty just calculation of the number of acres annually sown in that county, which amount to one hundred and fifty thousand acres. Now as Stafford is not a corn county, I do not take much latitude when I fix upon it to average the whole counties of England; this would make the total quantity sown in that kingdom amount to six millions of acres. The remaining one million five hundred thousand acres I suppose to be sown in Scotland and Wales, which make their produce only equal to ten English counties.

'If seven millions five hundred thousand acres be annually sown in Britain, and the average produce amount to three quarters per acre, then the total quantity of grain annually raised in Britain would be twenty-two millions five hundred thousand quarters.

'I have already said, that the thrashing machine, from its superior powers, will give one twentieth more grain than when the operation of thrashing is performed by the flail. This furnishes an increased quantity of one million one hundred and twelve thousand five hundred quarters; which taken at the average price of 32 shillings per quarter, for all grains, amount to £1,781,250; add to this the difference of expence between thrashing with the above machine and the flail, which

which may be stated at one shilling per quarter, (although when the machines are wrought by wind or water, the difference is more than double that sum) this on 22,500,000 quarters is £1,225,000, the whole amounting to £2,906,250.

Well might the author add that he scarcely expects to be credited, when he states so vast an amount of saving; and perhaps this is one of those instances in which only a particular view is taken of a subject, without respect to a variety of circumstances that ought to be admitted into the calculation. We readily, however, agree with Mr. M. that the Thrashing Machine is a very useful invention.

A long dissertation on *Fallowing* is inserted: but we shall leave this to speak for itself, in order to find some space for Mr. M.'s observations on the liquors of the English people, *Beer, Ale, and Porter*, which he thinks have received greater deterioration since the seasons of 1800 and 1801, than they have experienced from the time of Henry I. to that period. According to this writer, malt and hops are so far from being necessary to constitute ale and porter, that both are now manufactured without them. The ingredients of the former he states to be 'Grains of paradise, capsicum, coriander, *coccus Indicus*, quassia, liquorice, brown sugar, shag tobacco, *sal martis*, or green vitriol;' and he enumerates among the materials of the latter, '*Coccus Indicus*, liquorice, or Spanish juice, treacle, shag tobacco, alum, *sal martis*, green vitriol, isinglass, and quassia.'—We should be sorry to think that all these substances are commonly employed in the manufacture of porter: but we are convinced that it is now become a very unwholesome beverage; that articles are employed in it which ought to be prohibited; and that some stop ought to be put to the public sale of deleterious compounds. Mr. M. hopes that such members of the Board of Agriculture, as have seats in parliament, will take up the matter for the benefit of immense numbers of their fellow-creatures.

Of the state of the markets, and the tricks of salesmen, Mr. Malcolm is well aware; as may be seen by turning to his chapter on *Forestalling*, &c.

Hints are given respecting Guide Posts on Cross Roads, which are not sufficiently adopted even in this admired county; and on the subject of wheels, Mr. M. notices the great injury done to the roads by the waggons: which, instead of rolling on wheels with flat surfaces, have a projecting tire or plate of iron in the middle, by which the effect on the road is the same as if a narrow wheeled waggon with the same load and drawn by the same number of horses had been employed. As our roads, especially near the metropolis, are very bad, and materials

materials for repairing them are become scarce, this circumstance merits the attention of Parliament.

Pisé Walls are not recommended by Mr. M.; and his objections to them are the result of experience.

Under the article *Sheep*, particular attention is given to the Merino or Spanish breed. The objections which have been urged against this race of sheep are answered, and the adoption of it is strongly recommended: but, as Mr. M. has been anticipated in his remarks by other writers, we shall not copy from this part of the work.

With a large extract from Dr. Harrison's History of the Rot in Sheep, and with short notices on Lambs, Swine, and Poultry, the first volume concludes. — *Manures* constitute the subject of the first chapter of the 2d volume; and the reader will believe that it is treated at some length, when we inform him that nearly 227 pages are occupied in the discussion. If the farmer has patience to read through these details, he may collect some hints that will reward him for his trouble: but, had Mr. M. been more concise, the value of his communication would not have been diminished. He gives a list of 24 different manures, and of 9 Top-dressings, to each of which a distinct section is assigned: we must excuse ourselves, however, from following the author into his *primo, secundo, tertio, quarto, &c.*

The next chapter is intitled *Cultivated Grain*, and extends through 268 pages. Here we are informed that about 50,000 acres are cultivated annually with wheat in the county of Surrey; that the quantity of Rye is not more than 150,000 bushels; that it produces of Barley 640,000 bushels, and of Oats 286,000 bushels, per annum.

On the subject of *Mildew*, or Blight in Corn, Mr. M. informs us that he has endeavoured in vain to communicate this disease by strewing the powder or dust of infected plants on the ears of healthy corn; and that he inclines to think that 'the disease is produced by something inimical in the weather, which causes a stagnation in the juices of the plant, and thus becomes a fit subject for the seeds of parasitical plants to be lodged on and vegetate.' An opinion similar to this we have more than once hazarded; founded on the well-known fact that the matrix of all fungi is vegetable putrefaction; or that fungi do not begin to shoot till vegetable decay commences. In this chapter, the culture of Beans, Pease, Tares, Turnips, Rape, Cabbage, Potatoes, Carrots, and Parsnips, is amply noticed.

As the County of Surrey (particularly the parish of Farnham) has acquired celebrity on account of the management and superior quality of its *Hops*, this vegetable was intitled to a distinct

distinct chapter, and has obtained it. The particulars respecting the planting, growth, picking, drying, bagging, and produce, are exhibited; as well as the diseases to which the hop is subject. While Mr. M. recommends the culture of this valuable plant, he cautions persons from sleeping under the shade of a thick plantation of hops in the day-time, since death would probably be the consequence.

The subjects of the third volume are Grasses, Flax, Hemp, Furze, Physical Plants, Timber, Orchards, Roads, Common Fields, Draining, and Rotation of Crops: but, having already extended this article beyond the limits within which we purposed to confine it, we shall now restrict ourselves to the Essay on Timber, which presents to a naval country very serious matter for consideration. Our annual consumption, and the probable duration of the present stock, are first calculated:

‘It appears that the navy of this kingdom consumes annually nearly, if not above 117,000 loads of timber, and the quantity consumed in all the different mercantile yards throughout the kingdom, is little, if any thing short of 100,000 loads more, to which may be added 10,000 loads at least for private provincial purposes, and the total quantity will be somewhere about 227,000 loads of timber cut down and consumed every year.

‘In order to ascertain the quantity of timber or number of trees now growing in South Britain, averaging ten feet meetings, I have had recourse to the following calculation. Though it may be far from the truth, yet in my communications with different persons, stewards as well as timber dealers, many seem to think that the difference cannot be a great deal either way; and it may lead others who may be fond of contemplating these subjects, who have more time and abilities than I possess, to investigate the point more minutely.

‘The mode I adopted was as follows; supposing Great Britain to contain 108,000 square miles, equal to 69,120,000 square acres, and as the Board of Agriculture have ascertained that there are 7,588,977 acres of wastes, these I deduct, together with 4,231,023 acres for downs, roads, rivers, canals, water, towns and villages, from the total number of square acres, and that leaves me 57,300,000 of acres.

‘Suppose we admit that there may be five trees averaging ten feet in every twenty acres, it will give us 12,250,000 trees, which being divided by 227,000, the number said to be annually consumed, and the result will be that it will take near 54 years to consume them; but as scarce any thing less than 20 feet meetings will suit our dock yards, and as that size and upwards will necessarily decrease the proportion by increasing the distance, I think I may venture to say that if we go on cutting as fast as we have done for the last ten years; every large stick, at least down to that size that can be come at, will be consumed in thirty years.’

By thus pointing to our nearly exhausted forests, Mr. M. does not mean to excite a panic but to awaken prudence. He  
cautions

cautions us against depending on a foreign supply, and exhorts us to lose no time in raising new forests in the room of those which have been consigned to the ocean. The enclosures, which have been made on the royal property, he considers, as he well may, as very inadequate to our future wants. We wish that Mr. M. may not preach in vain.

Though we have not adverted to all the topics discussed in this publication, we have exhibited enough to shew the nature of the undertaking and the mode of its execution. As a compilation, the work may be useful to the agriculturist: but the style is incorrect, and occasionally, the expressions are too pompous for a book which is intended for the farmer's table.

ART. XI. *An Essay on the Spirit and Influence of the Reformation by Luther.* The Work which obtained the Prize on this Question, (proposed by the National Institute of France, in the Public Sitting of the 15th Germinal in the Year X) "What has been the Influence of the Reformation by Luther on the Political Situation of the different States of Europe, and on the Progress of Knowledge." By C. Villers. Faithfully translated from the last Paris Edition by B. Lambert: With a Portrait of Luther. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Jones. 1805.

ART. XII. *Essay on the Spirit and Influence of the Reformation of Luther, &c. &c.* translated, and illustrated with copious Notes, by James Mill, Esq. 8vo. 9s. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1805.

AMONG the phænomena of the present age, the work before us will not rank as the least remarkable. To behold an elaborate and satisfactory account of Luther's reformation, an accurate estimate of its importance, and a comprehensive view of its various benefits, issue from a catholic metropolis, under the authority of its incorporated science and literature, is at once a novel and a gratifying sight! We cannot witness the just tribute which is thus paid to the memory of the illustrious reformer, nor listen to these liberal testimonies to his inestimable services,—borne in a place in which within our recollection he would have been treated as a detestable heretic and a schismatic, and in which more recently he would have been branded as a hypocrite and a fanatic,—without admitting that our age, however unfavourable its aspect may be in some respects, furnishes one striking proof of the progress of the human mind. We are told that the performance before us has circulated widely in every part of Europe; and we rejoice in the intelligence, since we know not any publication so well calculated to ameliorate the Roman catholic religion in the countries

countries in which it is exclusively established \*. It is, however, much to be feared that the present agitated state of Europe will prevent it from immediately producing any good effects.

The Lutheran writers Sleidan and Seckendorf have detailed the history of their sect in the true spirit of philosophy; and on the score of impartiality in narration and candid reflections, they left little to be desired. The sole advantage which we have over them is that we are able at this day, from a more favourable station, to connect with the grand revolution which they so faithfully described, abundantly more of its consequences than it was in their power to delineate. From this advantageous position, M. Villers has surveyed the vast extent which it commands, with an eye which has permitted nothing of importance to escape it. If he found most of the regions within his vast range already illumined, such was not the case of all of them; and into these he has had the merit of introducing the light of day. He truly observes, that 'we are at present better situated than ever to judge of a revolution which broke out three hundred years ago: let us consider what was before it, and what has happened since; let us hear all parties, look around us, see what exists at the present day, and judge.' The course which he recommends he appears to have followed with peculiar success; and the ingenuous inquirer, who duly profits by the aid which is here afforded him, will not find it difficult to tread over the ground with similar, if not precisely the same advantage.

When the mention of England occurs in this work, the reader will discern some oversights, and a few mistakes of no great moment; the former, perhaps, are owing to that jealousy which most of the modern French literati have either really felt, or been obliged to assume from deference to their military ruler: who seems to be of opinion that the fame and character of a nation, like those of an individual, may be borne down by ve-

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\* On this point, we quote a sensible remark of Mr. Mill, in his preface:

'Were the Roman Catholics of Ireland delivered from those circumstances which lead them to regard the Protestants as their enemies, and brought to look without suspicion on any thing presented to them by Protestants, a book like this, in which the defects of the papal system, and its evil tendency with regard to all the best interests of men, are more fully and accurately portrayed than they have ever yet been, could not fail, approved too as it has been by Catholics, and in a catholic country, to have the most powerful effects on the minds of all the best informed and superior classes; effects which would speedily descend from them to their inferiors.'

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hement and reiterated calumnies. M. Villers does not, however, as many others have done, shamelessly abandon himself to purposes of this kind; he is only chargeable with limiting us in some instances to a less liberal allowance of praise than that to which we are intitled. To his credit also be it admitted that such is not always his conduct; and it will be our painful duty, in one or two cases, to disclaim, as not belonging to us, the commendation which he has bestowed on us. Among the omissions of which we complain, is the little notice which he takes of Wickliff; who, undoubtedly, till the appearance of Luther, was the greatest luminary that has shone in the Christian world since the apostolic times. The exertions of Parliament in opposition to papal extortions, the spirit of inquiry into ecclesiastical abuses, and the more just notions of religion, which his labours occasioned,—and which, to all appearance, were only prevented from maturing, in consequence of the devotion to the clergy which the usurpers of the House of Lancaster found it necessary to affect;—these occurrences, of which England has to boast, deserved more consideration among the predisposing causes of the reformation, than has been allowed to them by M. Villers.

The crazy structure of the papal fabric, and the hollow supports on which it rested, are here well described. In order to understand the following passage, the reader ought to be apprized that the author has been giving an account of the religious houses, and of the benefits which had resulted from them. He then proceeds:

‘ If churchmen preserved the slight tradition of knowledge in this manner, it must also be confessed that, in their hands, it sometimes became dangerous, and was converted to pernicious uses by its depositaries. The domination of Rome, erected upon a scaffolding of false historical proofs, required the aid of these faithful auxiliaries, who, on the one side, were to employ their half-knowledge in fascinating every eye, and, on the other, to prevent those eyes from discovering the true light, or being illuminated by the torch of criticism. The local usurpations of the clergy, being, in many places, founded on similar titles, stood in need of similar means of support. It therefore followed, that the small portion of knowledge which was permitted, must have been mingled with errors, and that nations must have been kept in profound ignorance, the foster-parent of superstition. Study was rendered as inaccessible as possible to the laity: that of the ancient languages was treated as a monstrosity and an idolatry. The reading of the holy writings, that sacred patrimony of all Christians, was particularly and severely interdicted: to read the Bible, without permission of the superiors, was a crime: to translate it into the vulgar tongue was a temerity deserving of extreme punishment. The popes had very good reasons for preventing the words of Jesus Christ from reaching the people, and for interrupting the direct communication

munication between the gospel and the Christian. When objects of such importance as public belief and public worship are kept in mystery by compulsion, the darkness must be universal and impenetrable. The numerous legions of mendicant monks not being sufficient for this purpose, the horrible inquisition was devised, to extinguish every spark of knowledge which might appear through the gloom of night, in blood and in tears.'

It is a very ingenious part of this essay, which points out the different aspects which catholicism, previously to the time of Luther, exhibited in different countries; and which were occasioned by variance in the tempers, habits, and circumstances of the people inhabiting them. The author first introduces the Italians:

'The Italian, never master of his own territory, always oppressed and subjugated, naturally became deceitful, cunning, dissimulating, selfish. Commerce constantly enriched him; but he hastened to consume, in enjoyment, the wealth which he foresaw might soon be snatched from him by violence. A taste for luxury, pomp, and voluptuousness, with that of the fine arts, became his consolation. The magnificence of the ancient ruins which surrounded him, influenced that which he gave to all his works, to all his religious edifices. Worship became the business of the senses, and religion a mythology; splendid ceremonies superseded simple prayers; saints and images became the intercessors with an almost forgotten God, and the immediate objects of devotion. No doubt the populace, and uninformed men, would adhere very strongly to this system of superstition, which captivated their senses, and lulled all their vices: but what wonder if he, who began to think and examine, should at once and entirely reject this system, where he could discover only the work of man, and that he should remain without a spark of religion? It was a necessary consequence that the Italian must be a papist or an atheist; he must either adore our Lady of Loretto, or not adore at all: hence there never was so many atheists as in the country and neighbourhood of the sovereign pontiffs. The most violent bigotry, or the incredulous libertinism of *Arctin*, is the inevitable lot of those who no longer give credit to all their religion, or no longer discern its spirit.'

He thus contrasts the countrymen of the reformer with the degenerate descendants of the conquerors of the world:

'What a different appearance was offered by Saxony! Its people had never been softened either by luxury and opulence, or by too mild a climate. There, resided an indigenous nation, energetic, open, who, from the ninth century to our era, had never been subjugated. On the banks of the Elbe they stopped the flight of the Roman eagles which was unable to penetrate into their provinces. In later times this nation had given conquerors to Europe; the Angles, the Normans, the Burgundians, the Franks, swarms broke off from Saxony, had subdued Great Britain, Gaul, and other provinces of the west. Those who continued on their own territory,



attached to their ancient and simple national worship, had allowed the remainder of Europe to embrace Christianity, without being tempted to imitate it, and to quit a creed, with which was interwoven the memory of the illustrious actions of their forefathers. When, after a desperate resistance of three-and-thirty years, *Charles-magne* succeeded in compelling them to receive Christianity, they adopted it with sincerity and simplicity; but it may be supposed that it never would become to them what it had become to the Italians. Here it attracted the eye less, and affected the heart more: there it was more of *worship*; here it was more of *religion*. Serious men, of manners generally pure, naturally practised a purer and more spiritual Christianity. They always bore the yoke with which the court of Rome had burthened them with secret impatience, and they threw it off on the first opportunity which offered: but, in rejecting this parasitical covering, which was grafted on the gospel, the gospel itself remained to them; they had not stifled its spirit; papism was not the total of religion to them; it was still of importance to them to have a religion; an interest in religious concerns was alive and active in them; they were capable of a reformation.

‘The intellectual improvements of the two people differed in the same proportion. The fine arts, every thing conducive to the enjoyments of taste, every thing flattering to the sensibility, physical or moral, had become the objects of Italian activity. The calm, equal, persevering activity of the Saxons, was directed to the abstract sciences, to philosophy, to historical researches. When the reformation burst forth, there was not a single theologian of Italy capable of countering those of Saxony; some of them had the presumption to attempt it, a presumption always the associate of ignorance; they were defeated, and covered with confusion. In revenge, Italy boasted loudly of her poets and her painters; she had not produced a *Luther*, but Saxony had not produced an *Ariosto*.’

We cannot withhold from our readers the author's striking portrait of this great benefactor of mankind:

‘*Martin Luther*, a doctor, priest, and Augustine monk, was, at that time, professor of philosophy and theology in the new university of Wittemberg, where an excellent and rigid spirit of assiduity, of love of the sciences, of true religion, and of liberty of thought prevailed. *Luther*'s parents were poor; his talents alone had raised him to the situation he filled. He was among the first who applied with ardour to the study of the new knowledge, which was cultivated by the most eminent geniuses of this century. The first rays of the rising sun had no sooner struck the high places, and most elevated summits, than *Luther* discovered, before the multitude, the new day which began to break. He devoted all his intellectual powers to the success of reviving letters, watched their progress, and rejoiced at the victory obtained by the partisans of the ancient languages over the inquisitors of Cologne: he had also acquired celebrity by some good productions of this description. Supported by an indefatigable zeal, by a wonderful memory, he had acquired the most perfect acquaintance with the holy writings, the fathers, and other ecclesiastical antiquities.

tiquities. One of his principal objects was to overturn the *scholastic divinity*, by banishing *Aristotle* from the domains of theology, and by demonstrating, from this singular compound of the logic of pagan philosophy with the doctrine of christianity, how much the first had been misunderstood, and both had been corrupted. In every encounter he overwhelmed the scholastics with his arguments and his wit, and covered their science with confusion and ridicule. His individual character, which has had such influence on that of the reformation, was energy and uprightness. Ardent and calm, high spirited and humble at the same time; irritable and warm in his language, when provoked by injurious treatment; mild, and inimical to every species of violence in actions; jovial, open, of ready wit, and even a pleasant companion at the table of the great; studious, sober, and a stoic in himself; courageous and disinterested, he exposed himself with tranquillity to every risk, in support of what he believed to be the truth. Commanded to appear before the diet of Worms, he presented himself there, notwithstanding the terrible and very recent example of *John Huss*, with dignity, simplicity, and firmness. Far from setting Rome at defiance in the outset, he wrote submissively to the pope, and exhibited no other appearance of superiority but that of his immense knowledge over *Cajetan* and the other theologians, deputed by Rome to convert him. Harassed afterwards with insults and outrages, he replied to them with animation: excommunicated by the pope, he publicly threw the bull of anathema into the fire. *Luther* knew all the intrinsic weakness and abuses of the pontifical court. He had been sent to Rome on the business of his order, some years before, and there every thing which struck his eye filled his heart with indignation. It is very probable that from that time, he secretly conceived, if not the design, at least the wish, for the deliverance of his country; and, like his ancient countryman *Arminius*, who had served in the Roman legions in Italy, before he repelled the same legions from Germany, it was in Rome that he learned to despise that Rome, which at a distance, appeared so formidable. From such characteristics we cannot misconstrue one of those superior beings, who, though participating in some of the defects of their age, are made to govern it, and carry it with them on the road to perfection. I may also add that, after having refused the offers of the court of Rome; after having been so many years the founder and almost patriarch of a new church; after having been the friend, the adviser, the spiritual father of so many princes, who, through the reformation, had been enriched with all the possessions of the clergy, of which he might have obtained a rich share, *Luther* lived and died in a state bordering on poverty, and left to his wife and children only the esteem due to his name.

M. Villers is of opinion that, notwithstanding the general dispositions favourable to the reformation,

‘Notwithstanding the universally acknowledged want of a reform in the church; notwithstanding the eloquence and the strength of *Luther*, this memorable revolution would, doubtless, never have been consolidated; it never would have acquired a political consistence, if

another interest besides that of religion and truth had not lent it support, and made it an interest of state. The princes of the north of the empire, to whom resistance to ambitious Austria was next to impossible with their ordinary means, saw, in the new enthusiasm of their people, an unhopd for opportunity of obtaining extraordinary succours, and of opposing the whole mass to the imperial arms. An intimate union between each prince and his people, as well as an alliance between the whole of these provinces, and these people, which before would have been a chimerical enterprize, became a necessary consequence of the common interest which spoke to all hearts. Besides the temptation of the treasures of the clergy, which each prince added to his own revenue, the allurements of independence, the gratification of an inveterate hatred against the court of Rome, all contributed to force the acquiescence of the chiefs, and to hurry them down the same torrent with their people. Whatever might have been their motives, it cannot be denied that the league of Smalcald was the first effective union of free princes and states against their oppressors, in modern Europe; that it laid the foundation of a better conduct, and of liberty of conscience.

Such a view of the affair will not lower this great event in the estimation of any considerate mind. Providence, which intended to effect this important change for the benefit of the world, had so ordered the course of things, that political motives and temporal incentives should co-operate with the moral convictions of men, in inciting them to effect the grand atchievement of a religious reformation.

The political good effects which flow from individual self value, from enlightened public opinion, and from that common interest which governors and governed feel, where protestantism is professed, are eloquently and energetically described by this author. The press has never produced a work which more deserves a perusal from those catholics, who are in a situation to comprehend and to profit by it.

M. Villers ably criticizes the conduct of Henry VIII. 'Had this monarch,' he says, 'adopted Lutheranism, and established it in his dominions, England would have been as peaceable as Denmark or Sweden.' We admit the conclusion to be probable, but does the remark become the professed advocate and panegyrist of the reformation? We think it likely, with him, that, had this measure been adopted by that capricious sovereign, fewer religious differences would have agitated the subsequent reigns; that no puritans would have disturbed the governments of Elizabeth and James; that the commotions, which under Charles overturned the altar and the throne, would never have happened; that nonconformity would not have reared its head so high under the second Charles, nor legalized dissent have kept alive religious contention to the present moment.

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We suspect, however, that there is little kindness in wishing us to have been exempted from these trials. Had we insured to ourselves the dead calm which a more consistent conduct on the part of Henry would in all probability have introduced, should we have been the highly enlightened, the highly free and privileged people which we are now allowed to be? Would the empire have reached the power and consideration which it now enjoys? Should we, in matters of civil and religious freedom, have been a pattern to the rest of the world? Should we have so nicely ascertained the limits of civil authority and the rights of conscience? Should we have been able to boast of so many benefactors to science, of so many eminent men of letters, of such progress in all the useful arts, in all that advances the strength and prosperity of a state? Could we have vaunted that galaxy of learned and able divines which it would require volumes summarily to characterize and describe; and which no country, down to the middle of the last century, could parallel? The opposition in the church has been of incalculable advantage; it has had the most salutary influence on our intellectual attainments, our liberties, our pursuits, and our manners. The wish that Britain had never been the seat of religious differences may suit the citizen of a rival nation, but it cannot have place in the bosom of an enlightened subject of this isle. The effects of those contentions are elsewhere not ill described by the author himself, when he states that we stand indebted to the commotions which we have undergone; 'for the energy which characterizes us; the profound love of liberty for which so much blood has been shed; the tendency to meditation left by religious exaltation; and the toleration of all religions, which naturally succeeds the intoxication of fanaticism.'

The story of our civil troubles is told in the most confused manner, without regard to time, place, or the order of events; indeed this part is a foul blemish in the work, a disgrace to the writer, and to the very learned and enlightened persons who have given it their sanction. As nothing occurs in the whole course of the essay which is executed in the same slovenly style, we are not without our suspicions that the offensive picture was sketched in order to gratify the propensity of the ruling powers. We are able in no other way to account also for the wanton reflections which the author pours out on the country of the brave Sobieskys, unfortunate Poland. These appear to be sacrifices which the writer, or the learned body for whom he wrote, deemed it necessary to make, in order to insure publicity to numerous invaluable observations.

Considerable as is the space which this article will occupy, we cannot omit the masterly sketch which the author

has given of the famed school of Loyola; never has it been better delineated, nor its leading features more accurately marked:

‘ It has been already said that the Jesuits were intrusted with the greater part of the public instruction, in the Catholic states. Europe had already tasted of the tree of knowledge; its light had spread into all parts, and had made a rapid progress; it had become impossible to oppose it openly. The safest expedient now was, not to combat the science, but to get possession of it to prevent it from being injurious: not being able to stop the torrent, it was necessary to dig a channel for it where it might fertilize the soil of the church instead of destroying it. To well-informed adversaries, therefore, they determined to oppose men as well informed; the crafty companions of *Ignatius* were appointed to satisfy the universal desire to acquire knowledge manifested by the age. It was here that the inconceivable talent of the new preceptors of humanity was displayed. Their leading maxim was to cultivate, and bring to the highest possible degree of perfection, every species of knowledge from which no immediate danger could arise to the system of the hierarchical power, and by that means to acquire the estimation and celebrity of being the most able and most learned men of the christian world. Assisted by this supremacy over opinion, it became easy for them either to paralyze the branches of knowledge which might bear fruit dangerous to the papacy, or to bend, direct, and graft these branches at pleasure. Thus, in inspiring a taste for the liberal sciences, the Greek and Roman classics, profane history, mathematics, they could conveniently stifle that of inquiring into matters of religion and state, the philosophical and investigating spirit. The philosophy taught in their schools was calculated to make this science repulsive and disgusting. It was no other than the scholastic, revised and corrected by them, and applied to circumstances, particularly to the polemical controversy with the reformists, whose arguments, as may readily be supposed, were brought forward in them so as to be destroyed by the artillery of the school. With respect to religion, the study of it was confined to the books of theology composed purposely by members of the society, to Jesuit casuists and moralists. The study of the original books of religion was withdrawn: or if the gospels and other pieces appeared sometimes in their works of devotion (and this was very necessary, since the translations, made by the reformed, were public,) it was with interpretations and even alterations conformable to the principal object of the society. Their grand rallying word was the *utility* of the sciences, and the *lustre* of the belles lettres. As to every thing relating to a moral amelioration or to the ennobling of mankind, as well as every thing connected with the philosophical and theological sciences, the Jesuits strove eagerly, and in fact succeeded in making them be totally forgotten; in rendering theology and philosophy barbarous and full of difficulties, and even ridiculous, in the eyes of the bulk of mankind. Who can determine how much this Jesuitic mode of instruction, which became the reigning mode in the Catholic countries, and which differs so widely from the mode of instruction

struction of the Protestants; how much, I say, this procedure, obstinately followed during several successive generations, might have influenced the species of culture and particular turn of mind among the Catholics, so different, in general, from what is seen among the Protestants?

'It, however, results from all this (and I believe this consideration is the key to the contradictory judgments formed on the method of the Jesuits, in the culture of the sciences, that this society has rendered immense services to certain parts of literature, on which it has thrown light: but that, on the other hand, it has purposely kept certain other important parts in obscurity: or, it has so scattered the avenues with difficulties, that men were not tempted to engage in them; so that, taken in general, the instruction given in their schools, very brilliant on the one side, remained very dark on the other, was a partial and incomplete instruction, and put the mind in a wrong track; for, as on the one side, all was clear and bright, and, on the other, all was dark and mysterious, the eye naturally turned to that side which alone was luminous, and disdained to rest on the other, of which they were even habituated not to suspect the existence

'To model science according to the interests of the pontifical power, and even to render it ignorant where it was requisite it should be ignorant; to produce certain objects in open day, and to keep others in a profound night; to fertilize the reign of the memory and wit, by rendering that of the mind and reason barren; to form enlightened, but submissive spirits, ignorant only of that which might lessen their submission, like those valuable slaves of the great men of antiquity, who were grammarians, poets, rhetoricians, skilful dancers, and musicians, knowing every thing, but to be free: I do not dread being contradicted by any impartial man, in asserting that such were the tactics of instruction adopted by the Jesuits. They were profound and supremely calculated for their object. They could form illustrious and polished writers, learned men, orators, good Roman Catholics, nay, Jesuits, but not men, in the extensive acceptation of the term: whoever became a man under their regulations, became so, independent of these regulations; and, I shall add, almost in despite of them.'

The author ingeniously refutes the paradox which represents the reformation as rather obstructing than aiding the progress of the human mind. If, in this great question between catholicism and protestantism, he in any degree errs, it is on the side of being too complimentary to the latter; since he extols too indiscriminately the state of the human mind, and the condition of society, in the communities which have abjured their allegiance to the Roman church. The situation of the Lutheran states, when contrasted with those in which rigid catholicism prevails, (such as Spain and the Imperial dominions,) doubtless appears to great advantage: but still learning is not cultivated in them, nor liberty enjoyed, in any degree equal to that which they display in the countries of the reformed communion,

and in England; nor is this latter country intitled, as is stated by M. Villers, to the praise of uniformly bestowing its numerous rich ecclesiastical preferments as the rewards of learning and merit.

Having adverted to the more striking excellencies, and noticed the slighter defects, of this valuable performance, we now take our leave, thankful for the gratification which we have derived from it in the honest discharge of our duty. We cannot undertake to divine what can only be certainly known to the author himself; whether he be a christian or not, we therefore will not determine; it is sufficient for us that he treats our religion not only with decency, but with reverence and respect. It is true that he writes more in the manner of a philosopher and a statesman than in that of a divine: but probably he might be of opinion that the nature of his investigation prescribed to him such a course. However this may be, the inquiry, which he here pursues, displays enlarged views of the affairs of modern Europe, and of the progress of the human mind. All, as it bears on his great object, is fairly related; and nothing is made to bend to system. It is a cool and dispassionate survey of a most important subject; a discussion conducted in the true spirit of philosophy, which presents equal claims to the attention of public characters and intelligent private men. The author appears to possess a mind habituated to observe, examine, and reflect; which is strongly impressed with the value of knowledge, liberty, and virtue, and which is anxious to promote their cultivation and influence.

In this article, we have followed the translation of Mr. Lambert, as having been taken from a later edition of the original. To counterbalance this advantage, the performance of Mr. Mill is enriched with valuable notes; some of which are very appositely introduced from our best authors, while others bespeak the inquisitive and enlightened mind of that gentleman himself. The original never having reached us, we can form no judgment respecting its style: but, if it can boast of either elegance or felicity, these delicate qualities must have been dissipated under the process of translation; for in neither of the versions is a trace of them discoverable. Their conformity, however, induces a belief that the sense of the author is in neither materially altered or obscured.

ART. XIII. *The Wiccamical Chaplet*, a Selection of original Poetry; comprising smaller Poems, serious and comic; classical Trifles; Sonnets; Inscriptions and Epitaphs; Songs and Ballads; Mock-Heroics, Epigrams, Fragments, &c. &c. Edited by George Huddesford. Crown 8vo. pp. 223. 6s. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby.

FLOWERS collected from almost every parterre of the poetical garden are entwined in this chaplet; which is intitled *Wiccamical*, because the contributors were educated at Winchester school, which was founded by William of Wickham. The editor has not marked the different poems by any initials, nor distinguished his 'trifles', as he modestly terms his own pieces, from those of his friends. Being, however, not unacquainted with Mr. Huddesford's facetious and entertaining Muse, the style and character of many of the poems induce us to attribute them to him, and to consider him as having furnished a much larger portion of the whole than could be inferred from his own acknowledgement. From such a miscellaneous mass, it is impossible to quote any one piece which can be a fair specimen of the rest: but, as far as Mr. Huddesford is concerned, we may characterize him as a legitimate descendant of Nat. Prior. His Muse is often careless: but his thoughts are truly humorous when he means to be playful; and they are not less elegant when he aims to be complimentary. Prior did not better understand how to give point to an epigram, Mr. Dibdin is not more expert at a song, nor Peter Pindar at the Burlesque or Mock-Heroic. We shall copy at random from this collection, but we shall select from each of the different departments. Of the translations, we take the following; not because it is the best, but because it is one of the shortest:

#### ANACREONTIC,

FROM JULIANUS AEGYPTIUS.

Ἐστὶς ποτὶς ποτὶς ἔρωτα  
 Ἐν τοῖς ῥοδαῖς ἔρωτα  
 Καὶ τὴν πλεῖστον κατασχὺν  
 Ἐβασίμῳ εἰς τοὺς οἶκον.  
 Δαδὺν δ' ἔπεισεν αὐτὸν.  
 Καὶ τὸν τὸν μετὰ μὲν  
 Πτερωτὰ γαργαλίζου.

LUBIN. 1004.

#### TRANSLATION.

As a garland once I wove,  
 I found, amid the roses, Love:

Fast



Fast by the wings the rogue I caught,  
 And drench'd him in a copious draught.  
 Headless wretch! I took the cup,  
 And drank it to the bottom up.  
 Still I feel his tingling dart  
 Still he flutters at my heart.'

The Anacreontic at p. 68. has some merit: but the line

'What happy hour will then *be by*'

sadly disgraces it.

In Sonnet 4, on the Author's Birth Day, not that of Mr. Huddesford certainly, we meet with a line which ought not to have been written by a Winchester boy:

'Can I this rising day salute like *they*.'

The spirit of the 10th Sonnet recompences us for the bad grammar of the 4th:

'TO AN OAK

'*Blown down by the wind.*'

'Thou who, unmov'd, hast heard the whirlwind chide  
 Full many a winter round thy craggy bed;  
 And, like an earth-born giant, hast outspread  
 Thy hundred arms and heaven's own bolts defied,  
 Now liest along thy native mountain's side  
 Uptorn;—yet deem not that I come to shed  
 The idle drops of pity o'er thy head,  
 Or basely to insult thy blasted pride:—  
 No—still 'tis thine, tho' fall'n, imperial Oak!  
 To teach this lesson to the wise and brave,  
 That 'tis much better, overthrown and broke  
 In freedom's cause, to sink into the grave,  
 Than, in submission to a tyrant's yoke,  
 Like the vile reed, to bow and be a slave.'

The turn and the style of the *Prioric* epigram are very visible in this:

'EPITAPH

'On a late LIBERAL and LEARNED  
 LAMB OF THE LAW.

'There's a Proverb we've all of us heard of and read.  
 "Say nothing but that which is good of the dead:"  
 Since John H——y's gone, keep this proverb in view,  
 And be sure you say nothing of John that is true.'

Warton's humorous epitaph on the Oxford Pyc-woman was probably in the author's thoughts when he wrote the Inscription on Elizabeth Pidgeon: but Dr. Johnson, who objected

to wit displayed over the grave as being out of place, would have demurred to both,—and to the latter for taking too great a liberty with sacred scripture, by calling her tomb ‘*the Pidgeon-house*’ “not made with hands.” The pun is not exhausted till the last line,

‘ Rest, gentle Pidgeon, in this Pidgeon hole.’

We turn to the following Song; which, if our readers admire it as much as we do, they will thank us for transcribing:

‘ SONG.

‘ MUTUAL LOVE.

- ‘ When on thy bosom I recline,  
Enraptur’d still to call thee mine,  
To call thee mine for life;  
I glory in the sacred ties,  
Which modern wits and fools despise,  
Of Husband and of Wife.
- ‘ One mutual flame inspires our bliss:—  
The tender look, the melting kiss  
Ev’n years have not destroy’d;  
Some sweet sensation ever new  
Springs up, and proves the maxim true,  
That Love can ne’er be cloy’d.
- ‘ Have I a wish? ’tis all for thee;  
Hast thou a wish? ’tis all for me:  
So soft our moments move,  
That angels look with ardent gaze,  
Well pleas’d to see our happy days,  
And bid us live—and love.
- ‘ If cares arise (and cares will come),  
Thy bosom is my softest home,  
I lull me there to rest;  
And is there ought disturbs my Fair?  
I bid her sigh out all her care,  
And lose it on my breast.’

The Cricket-Song for the Hambledon Club, Hants, 1767, will be perused with glee by those who are partial to this diversion: but it is too long for us, and not quite so humourous as the drinking song which immediately succeeds it, called

‘ A BALLAD OF SIMILES\*.

- ‘ If Life, like a Bubble, evaporates fast,  
You must take off your wine, if you wish it to last;

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\* The singing reader will not forget the old *Song of Similes*.

For

For a Bubble may soon be destroy'd with a puff,  
If it is not kept floating in liquor enough.

' If Life's like a Flow'r, as grave moralists say,  
'Tis a very good thing, understood the right way.  
For, if Life is a Flow'r, ev'ry blockhead can tell,  
If you'd have it look fresh, you must water it well.

' That Life is a Journey no mortal disputes,  
Then we'll liquor our brains, boys, instead of our boots,  
And each toper shall own, on Life's road as he reels,  
That a spur in the head is worth two on the heels.

' If Life's like a Lamp, then, to make it shine brighter,  
We'll assign to Madeira the post of Lamp-lighter,  
We'll cherish the flame with Oporto so stout,  
And drink Brandy-punch till we're fairly burnt out.

' The World to a Theatre liken'd has been,  
Where each one around bears his part in the scene;  
If 'tis ours to be tipsey, 'tis matter of fact  
That the more you all drink, boys, the better you'll act.

' Life fleets like a Dream, like a vision appears,  
Some laugh in their slumbers and others shed tears;  
But of us, when we wake from our Dream, 'twill be said,  
That the tears of the Tankard were all that we shed.'

From a class of poems in which the genius of the editor  
shines with much advantage, we take a

#### ' SAMPLE

' *Of the SUBLIME, LUMINOUS, and PROFOUND, in MODERN  
POETRY.*

' How I rejoic'd when the Slavonian Bat  
Popt from the Zenith in a slipshod hat !  
Then, while athwart my steed the ostler's haste  
A Yorkshire pudding for a saddle plac'd,  
On my pacific pair of boots I drew  
That in the twilight of Gambadoes grew ;  
And ere yon squint-ey'd planet gave the hint  
To pickle pancakes in Geneva print,  
Or ere Tantides would his task forego  
To crop rheumatic Sprouts\* from Nestor's toe,  
A Roman Coach drove o'er my logic nose,  
And green Iniquity grew ripe in prose.—  
'Twas then from Hypochondres' concave bounds  
Up flew this whirlwind of prophetic sounds:  
" When Polyphemus shall a sempstress turn,

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\* Rheumatic Sprouts, alias "corns."—Tantides, a Grecian Empiric and Corn-cutter in ordinary to the King of Pylos, whom Homer forgot to celebrate.'

And icicles like lighted flambeaux burn ;  
 When Broad Saint Giles's shall ascend the sky,  
 And Grosvenor square be fill'd with apple-pye ;  
 When South-America shakes hands with Greece,  
 When Castles in the Air are let on lease ;  
 When glow-worms' tails shall fire old Ocean's floods,  
 When Rhadamanthus steeps his wig in suds ;  
 When Sir John Lade shall guide Apollo's Car,  
 And Hamlet's Ghost get drunk with Doctor — ;  
 When with red herrings teems the Grand Canal,  
 When Neptune drives a gig along Pall-Mall,  
 When the Sun's orb wants lustre, when the sky  
 Wants stars, and Eldon wants Integrity ;  
 'Mongst the budge \* doctors of her rev'rend fold  
 When wond'ring Lambeth sees Tom Paine enroll'd ;  
 When Billington shall warble heathen Greek,  
 When Sheridan grows dull, and H——y meek ;  
 When pickled sturgeon from the stars shall drop,  
 When Bonaparte keeps a chandler's shop ;  
 When Beaver broad humility denotes,  
 When physic finds its way down Doctors' throats ;  
 When Epic Bays emblazon B——'s scull,  
 When Mother Shipton shaves the Great Mogul ;  
 When Howard grows enamour'd of small-beer,  
 And when Jack Ketch is made an Irish Peer ;  
 When sucking pigs shall sing in every grove,  
 And Oysters fatten in a Rumsford Stove ;  
 When Farthing Candles are for Toothpicks sold,  
 And Gingerbread is worth its weight in Gold—  
*Men shall be honest, Women hold their peace,  
 Sin shut up shop, and Cuckold-making cease."*

The Wiccamical effusions manifest great sportiveness of  
 genius, and no inconsiderable portion of that "broad grin,"  
 which in the present age is preferred to merely elegant  
 poetry.

\* BUDGE, surly, stiff, formal.

SAM JOHNSON.

BUDGE is Fur, antiently an ornament of the Scholastic habit.

TOM WARTON.

For budge doctors, read fudge doctors.

JOE RITSON.

O fie ! Joseph !

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1806.

## BIOGRAPHY.

Art. 14. *Memoirs of the Life and Writings of the late Rev. and learned Hugh Farmer*: to which is added, a Piece of his, never before published, printed from the only remaining Manuscript of the Author. Also several original Letters, and an Extract from his Essay on the Case of Balaam, taken from his Manuscript, since destroyed. By the late Michael Dodson, Esq. 8vo. pp. 160. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1805.

**A**UTHORS and Editors will avail themselves of the point conveyed in the old proverb, "Many a little will make a mickle;" and when the prominent part of a publication wants bulk, they contrive to increase its tangibility by a variety of supplementary matter. It has been deemed necessary to resort to this expedient in the present instance; yet, though it may be alleged that all the addenda have a reference to the subject of the memoir, we think that they all might have been spared. Even the extract from the Essay on the Case of Balaam, of which we have heard so much, is very unimportant, since it reaches not the difficulty with which this part of the Scriptures is embarrassed. The letters were scarcely worth publishing; and the same may be said of the Remarks on Mr. Fell, which cannot now excite the smallest interest.

As to the memoir itself, it is a neat composition, containing an excellent delineation of Mr. Farmer; who was a learned and popular preacher among the Protestant Dissenters, and who was well-intitled to the notice which he has here obtained. His biographer laments that few incidents occur to vary the detail: but he has managed the narrative with skill, and displayed his friend's qualities with much accuracy and impartiality. Ample praise is bestowed on Mr. Farmer's profound learning, captivating eloquence, soul elevating devotion; and elegant conversation: but, at the same time, the weak parts of his character are not concealed from us; and we pity in him that reserve, or want of openness and fortitude, in the avowal of his opinions, which ill became a minister of the truth. Habituated to deep reading and reflection, Mr. Farmer's sentiments could not have been of the vulgar stamp. On subjects not connected with doctrinal points, he diverged from the common road; and it is fair to suppose that, had he taken the mask from his mind, it would have appeared less imbued with orthodoxy than he had courage to avow. This disguise is attributed to his aversion to theological controversy: but the instance which is mentioned, in connection with the remark, shews that he was not governed merely by this motive.

The events in Mr. Farmer's life were few. He was born at a place called "The Isle Gate," belonging to a small hamlet almost surrounded by the river Severn, a few miles from Shrewsbury, in the year 1714, was educated for the ministry under Dr. Doddridge at Northampton, was first an assistant to the Rev. Mr. David Some at  
Market

Market Harbrough; removed thence to Walthamstow, to be chaplain in the family of Wm. Coward, Esq; and afterward, in consequence of that gentleman's oddities, to the house of Wm. Snell, Esq; in whose family he resided above thirty years. At Walthamstow, Mr. F. raised a congregation, which was composed of the most opulent Dissenters; he was chosen afternoon preacher at Salter's Hall, London; officiated there with much reputation and success; retired from his public labours in the full exercise of his mental faculties, and with undeclining popularity; and died on the 5th of Feb. 1787, of the gout in his stomach.

It is matter of serious concern that Mr. Farmer ordered all his MSS. to be destroyed: but we cannot blame his executors, who, prompted by a due sense of honour, rigidly carried the will of the deceased into execution.

## NOVELS.

Art. 15. *A Winter in London; or Sketches of Fashion.* By T. S. Surr. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips.

Novelty is no longer to be expected in a novel; and in no instance perhaps is the observation of Solomon, that "there is nothing new under the sun," more fully verified than in the composition of this species of writing. Mr. Surr has endeavoured, we suppose, to exhibit something new by catching "the manners living as they rise," and portraying some of our leading characters of fashion: here, however, the novelty extends not far; it is displayed chiefly in the variations of frivolous amusements and foppish manners: but morality and immorality are still the same. Two celebrated Duchesses of *haut ton* are here presented to view, under assumed designations; the one noted for *good cheer* and dexterity in arranging family alliances, the other for her unfortunate devotion to the goddess of *Chance*, and both for their rivalry in splendid *festes* and entertainments. Some distinguished characters are also exhibited in *propriis personis*, for the purposes of eulogy. The hero's story reminds us very strongly of Miss Burney's *Evelina*, with a spice of the *Fool of Quality*; and an Italian courtesan and monk, of the true murderous disposition, also make their appearance. Will the Italians ever *avenger*, or ever *redeem*, the stigma which our writers almost constantly throw on them, when an individual of that nation has a part to act in the drama?—"Last, though not least," *Reviewers* form a groupe in this assemblage, and some modern professors of the critical art are treated with much asperity; while the *M. R.* is hailed in a *rough style* of old friendship.

The work possesses interest, manifests some talents, and offers exhortations and incitements to virtuous conduct.

Art. 16. *The Nobility of the Heart.* By Elizabeth Isabella Spence. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Nobility in adversity is here made to display the *Nobility of the Heart*. An Earl's daughter, thrown into concealment, and deprived of her inheritance, experiences the sorrows of dependence, but at length emerges into her proper sphere. The scheme, the incidents, and the characters,

characters, are all as old as virtue and vice; and the composition is far from being polished: but the tale may amuse, and the inferences from it ought to instruct.

Art. 17. *Ferdinand and Amelia.* 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d.  
Crosby and Co.

Here again we have nobility in masquerade, and finally shining in its own colour. The usual personages and occurrences are contemplated; the literary merit of the writer is about the ordinary standard; and the lesson taught is of the old stamp, told over and over again. *Dixies repetita,—PLACAT.*

Art. 18. *Can we doubt it?* or the genuine History of two Families of Norwich. By Charlotte Bournon-Malarme, Member of the Academy of Arcades (Arcadian Academy) of Rome. Translated from the French by Mrs. Villa-Real Gooch. 12mo. 3 Vols. 3s. 6d. Crosby and Co.

Say rather, "Can we believe it?" We confess that we cannot.—Madame Bournon-Malarme asserts that this tale is a narrative of facts, with only disguised names, communicated by the son of one of the parties to her when on a visit to Bath, twelve years since. The highest improbability, in our opinion, and in some parts *impossibility*, mark this revolting narrative of atrocities: which, as an error in *fiction*, are ascribed to the most inadequate motives. Had such events really occurred, we conceive that the Bow-street gentlemen would have contrived a *denouement* much sooner than this writer has effected it.

#### POLITICS.

Art. 19. *Thoughts on the relative State of Great Britain and France*, at the Close of Mr. Pitt's Life and Administration, in 1806: 8vo. 2s. Hatchard.

"Knowledge", says Lord Bacon, "is power", and this position is eminently true in a political sense. It has been too much the practice of those who directed our public affairs, to consult their wishes instead of their reason; to despise, rather than to calculate the strength of the enemy; and to suffer passion to obliterate the dictates of sound policy. Are we to persevere in such a system of imbecillity and delusion? A better prospect seems opening before us; and we may presume that on the new administration the clear and extensive views, the judicious observations, and the sound advice, given by this writer at the present critical moment, will not be lost. The state of Great Britain and France is nicely weighed in the political scale; the power and preponderance of Bonaparte on the continent are fully displayed; his ability as a statesman as well as a warrior is acknowledged; and his assumption of the Imperial dignity is considered more as an act of wisdom than of vanity. Though the author reprobates the pusillanimity of the Emperor Francis in making peace, he does not conceal the situation in which Europe is placed by that event; admitting that the power, dominions, and means belonging to Bonaparte are thus rendered superior to those which have been enjoyed by any sovereign in Europe since the fall of the Western Empire.

ALL

\* All the barriers constructed and maintained with so much blood and treasure in Flanders, Dutch Brabant, and on the German frontier, are swept away. Piedmont and Savoy are swallowed up in the French territory: Flanders, long since incorporated with that immense monarchy, has even lost its name. The Rhine is as completely French, from its source to its mouth, as the Garonne or the Seine. To the ports of Belgium are added those of Italy. Ostend, Genoa, Nice, the isle of Elba, the gulph of La Spezzia, the Mouths of the Po, the city of Venice, and all the harbours of that extinct Republic, own the same common ruler.

By the new conquests and acquisitions of the French in the Adriatic, the importance of Malta as a post of war is much diminished, since it has no longer the command of the Levant; nor can it prevent Bonaparte's enterprizes on Egypt, if he chooses to renew them. As Malta, therefore, the writer thinks, is not now worth the contest, even supposing that the possession of Egypt were of more serious consequence to us than it is ever likely to be, and as there is no prospect of our diminishing the enemy's overgrown power, it is advised that he should be conciliated; and that measures should be adopted towards the establishment of a peace.

On Mr. Pitt as a financier, an eloquent speaker, a manager of the House of Commons, and a man of a firm and disinterested mind, ample encomium is passed: but the author will not admit that he was "an excellent statesman." Under the existent circumstances of England and France, which render peace desirable, he is even of opinion that the decease of the late minister was a propitious event.

While advice is given for the purpose of instituting pacific measures, the defence of the country against the enemy is not passed over in silence. Plans both financial and military are proposed; and it is particularly recommended to Government to raise a disciplined *Posse Comitatus* of 700,000 men, to make a harbour at Dover for frigates and smaller ships of war, to fortify the whole of our coast that is nearest to that of the enemy, and to keep his flotilla in check by a flotilla of our own. 'I hope,' says this writer, 'that I shall not be told of the expence which such a work would occasion. What! when we can vote so many millions to bring Russians into Moravia, or to enable Austria to embody her forces; should we think it much to lay out one or even two millions at Dover, where Bonaparte may effect a landing before next July?' If peace be an object of the new administration, it is strongly urged by the author of these thoughts that it should be attempted in the spirit of peace and conciliation. It is recommended to both nations to calm the violence of mutual antipathies, and reciprocally to draw the veil of oblivion over the past. If it be our wish to bring Bonaparte into pacific plans, we must cease to inflame him with abuse; we must abandon the cause of the Bourbons as desperate, acknowledge him as Emperor of the French, and no longer continue to treat him as an upstart, plunderer, and usurper.

This writer does not advert to the establishment of commercial arrangements with France, by which, if judiciously made, both countries would be benefited; he is, however, persuaded that, should



the new administration combine a pacific disposition with a proper energy, 'a few months will probably produce a secure, an honourable, and a permanent peace.'

Art. 20. *A Letter occasioned by the Death of the Right Honourable William Pitt.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

Most completely has this writer *taken us in*. Instead of politics, we have methodism. Mr. P. is considered as looking from his embodied state on the present world; and a sermon, unlike any speech which he ever delivered in parliament, is put into his mouth. 'How enlarged', we are told, 'must now be his perceptions on the means of man's reconciliation with his God!'—The pamphlet concludes, 'May the grace of God direct and prosper Mr. Pitt's successors.' We say, Amen:

Art. 21. *The Mysteries of Neutralization; or the British Navy vindicated from the Charges of Injustice and Oppression towards Neutral Flags.* By John Brown, of Great Yarmouth. 8vo. pp. 156. 4s. Jordan and Co. 1806.

This work will serve as a supplement to the able pamphlet intitled *War in Disguise*, which we announced in our Number for December last. It prefers the same complaints, seeks similar redress, and also fortifies its statements by particular facts, of which an ample collection is adduced. Little is here said respecting the law itself, the author having been chiefly employed in collecting together the instances of its violation, and in developing the arts and contrivances by which the pretended neutrals impose on our Admiralty courts.

Mr. Brown remarks that 'it is not possible to state with precision the number of vessels which *really belong* to the inhabitants of East Friesland. It is, however, well known that they do not exceed one hundred vessels of one hundred tons burthen each and upwards. The lowest general computation of the number of vessels bearing the Prussian flag, but being the property of subjects of belligerent powers, is *two thousand* and the highest *three thousand* sail! Could a fair balance be struck of the relative advantages arising from neutralization to the different belligerent interests, and the total be divided into a *hundred shares*, not more than *one* would be found to rest with England, nor less than *ninety-nine* with our enemies!'

The documents necessary for the purposes of fraud are manufactured at different places in the north of Europe, and form a notorious marketable article. The author asserts that, to detect these newly introduced contrivances and impostures, the proceedings in our prize courts are wholly inadequate; and that the neutralizers are fully acquainted with their defects, and avail themselves of them. He informs us that

'Most of the *Dutch* and *French* ship-owners are *skilful proctors*. They know how to appreciate the immense advantages secured to them by our **STANDING INTERROGATORIES**, and can calculate to a fraction the chance they have of success—seldom dubious if their *Masters Mariners will but swear!* Thence, at the present hour, the question is *NOT*, is the *master a sober religious man, and a SKILFUL MARINER?* but, "IS HE UP TO A THING OR TWO? WILL HE SWEAR?" If he be willing,

willing, but has not been initiated in all the MYSTERIES of NEUTRALIZATION, he is put in training, and taught to rehearse our STANDING INTERROGATORIES, till he knows every question by rote, and has every answer ready to meet every question put to him. In this manner the masters, mates, &c. are drilled and disciplined in the exercise of PERJURY, so that when a real examination takes place at our out-ports, without one faltering accent, one blush upon their cheeks, THEY DELIBERATELY FORSWEAR THEMSELVES at every sentence, and so utterly incompetent are the existing rules of our High Court of Admiralty to meet the existing evil, that with the most complete conviction that the claims of the asserted neutral are unjust, the court frequently finds itself obliged to restore, and sometimes with costs and damages against the captor !!!

Our situation with regard to neutrals appears to be highly prejudicial on many grounds, and adds very considerably to the sum of the difficulties which press on us at this awful moment. In this instance, as in our foreign relations in general, we own that we can discover little of that excellent statesmanship of which we have lately heard so much.

We need scarcely add that this pamphlet is very interesting in a political light, and particularly for its facts and documents.

ART. 22. *An Essay on the Impolicy of a Bounty on the Exportation of Grain; and on the Principles which ought to regulate the Commerce of Grain, divided under the following Heads; Of the History of the Corn Laws; Influence of the Population on the Corn Trade; Effects of the Bounty on the Rent of Lands; Effects of the Bounty on the Profits of the Farmer; Effects of the Bounty on the Value of Silver; Exportation; Importation; Landlords, Farmers and Corn Dealers.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. C. and R. Baldwin.

The subjects here specified are distinctly discussed in eight chapters, and the arguments of the writer are intitled to much attention. We cannot allot to them the space requisite for detailing them at length, but we shall endeavour to state their substance. In tracing the history of the Corn Laws, it is shewn that the Bounty, originally given on Exportation, had no more effect in promoting the growth of corn than the institution of the National Debt; for it is well known that Agriculture, instead of declining, has advanced since the suspension of the bounty. Those effects, it is observed, which have been attributed by the advocates for a bounty to this suspension, have arisen from the start which Commerce has acquired of Agriculture, and from an increase of population and luxury. It is maintained that an urgent demand is always provided at home for the greatest possible increase of the fruits of the earth, and that an ample market will afford full encouragement to the farmer, without the assistance of a bounty on exportation; the sole operation of which measure would not be to enrich the farmer, but to put money into the pockets of the proprietors of land. Since, however, the value of silver and of all the necessaries of life must be raised by this bounty, the landlord will not eventually be more benefited by it than the farmer, while its natural tendency must be to discourage every species of industry. On these grounds,

grounds, the author hopes that the new corn-law will speedily be repealed.

The errors which have been entertained on this subject are attributed to the contemplation of a single particular, without embracing general views. To advance Agriculture, the government is advised to render the commerce of land as free and easy as that of all things else; to relieve agriculture from vexatious imposts; to encourage the employment of large capitals in it; and to leave the price of corn to find its natural level in the market. The vulgar prejudices against farmers and corn-dealers, in times of scarcity and dearth, are very sensibly combated. Indeed, the whole of this pamphlet evinces that the writer is well acquainted with the soundest principles of political economy.

ART. 23. *Observations upon some late Proceedings in Parliament, touching certain rumoured Delinquents in the Office of Treasurer of his Majesty's Navy, in a Letter to a Friend.* Published by Permission of the Author. 8vo 1s. Chapple. 1805.

This observer is of opinion that the persons accused of malversation, in the office of the Treasurer of the Navy, have been treated with a severity which is inconsistent with the mild spirit of the English laws; and he insists much on the importance of those rights with which our jurisprudence cloaths defendants in criminal prosecutions, a point which nobody will be found to controvert. If, however, this must be readily admitted on the one hand, it can hardly be denied on the other that the detection of misconduct in high public situations, and the conviction of the parties, are also objects of very serious moment. The writer arraigns the powers created by the act appointing naval commissioners, and complains of the hardship under which the individuals have been put to whose cases they have been applied. Whether the censure be well or ill founded, we have no means of judging; since the author does not cite a single clause of the statute which he seems to think infringes on the rights of British subjects. He ought, we conceive, to have specified those provisions of the act against which his objections are directed; and to have stated those interrogatories, which he supposes it to be unfit to administer. As matters now stand, we are here required to sympathize with the oppressed, without having a single proof adduced that any oppression has been practised: It certainly is not a very modest request to solicit that we should *præsume* that the accused are chargeable with no delinquency, and that the whole measure is owing to the intemperate and harsh proceedings of the House of Commons.

As far as the tracts lately published on this subject tend to render the public mind dispassionate on the question, we wish them all possible success. The charges are most serious, and they will be powerfully urged: but we have no doubt that the tribunal, before which they have been preferred, will decide impartially between the country and the individuals.

ART. 24. *A Letter addressed to the Right Honorable Lord Henry Petty, wherein the general Tendency of the Principles of his great Predecessor's financial Administration are freely and plainly examined;*

mined; evincing their baneful and ruinous Effects upon the Public Spirit of the People, and pointing out the Injustice, the Impolicy, and even the Danger of continuing to allow these Principles to influence the financial Measures of the Government. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Jordan and Co.

When new ministers come into office, by the death or removal of their predecessors, many politicians are ready to volunteer advice, and to assist them with plans for their future conduct. Lord H. Petty, being "young in deeds," may be thought to require friendly counsel to aid him in the discharge of the duties of his elevated situation, and so far the writer of this prompt address may regard his admonitions as requiring no apology. Some of his strictures on the financial system of Mr. Pitt are indeed deserving of consideration: but he is too declamatory, and we question the soundness and practicability of those measures which he wishes to be adopted. The equity, however, of his fundamental principle of taxation we do not dispute; nor do we controvert his assertion respecting the late ministry, that 'they have been strong against the weak, and not strong against the strong:' but, though it is as impolitic as it is unjust to put the man of mere income on a par with the possessor of real property, it may be impracticable to make all *moveables*, (viz all furniture, and pictures, which have a nominal value, and are unproductive,) subjects of taxation; for a picture which may be valued at a thousand guineas does not yield one farthing to the proprietor, and cannot be compared to a house or field of the same price. It is the opinion of this writer that, if the taxes are modified, and arms are put into the hands of the peasantry, we may laugh to scorn the power of France. Mr. Pitt is asserted to have *once* saved the empire; and to Mr. Fox this writer does not seem to be partial, though he allows him 'to be English, soul and body.' The scheme for the extinction of the national debt by the sinking fund, which, it is observed, no more owes its origin to Mr. Pitt than to the Cham of Tartary, is pronounced 'to benefit the state at the expence of the individual.' In short, Lord Henry is advised to *turn over a new leaf*; and to dismiss the narrow politics of the desk, the counting house, and the Stock Exchange, for those which embrace the interests of the country at large.

#### MEDICAL.

ART. 25. *An Account of two Cases of Gout, which terminated in Death, in consequence of the external Use of Ice and Cold Water.* By E. Edlin. 12mo. 1s. Harris.

The novelty and boldness of Dr. Kinglake's practice in gout\*, and the unqualified manner in which it is recommended, must be expected to produce a crowd of opponents: but the present performance cannot be considered as a very formidable attack, since it principally consists of an account of only one case, in which the application of cold appeared to be succeeded by fatal effects. The subject was himself a respectable practitioner at Uxbridge, who, being a

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\* See p. 123. of this Review.

convert to Dr. Kinglake's opinion, resolved, when an opportunity occurred, to try the experiment on his own person. He was attacked with the usual symptoms of gouty inflammation in the feet, unattended with any constitutional complaints; to which, after it had subsisted for three days, he freely applied, first cold air, then cold water, and afterward water still farther reduced in temperature by the addition of ice. At this period, he was visited by Mr. Edlin, who endeavoured to dissuade him from a practice which he considered as extremely dangerous: but the patient persevered, and the consequence was that the pain was quickly relieved, and he deemed himself perfectly cured. In a few hours, however, he had a violent attack of that kind which is usually regarded as depending on a repulsion of the gouty inflammation,—difficulty of breathing, cold extremities, quick, fluttering, intermitting pulse, vomiting, and torpor of the stomach. Strong stimulants and antispasmodics in some degree relieved these symptoms, but they returned, and proved fatal.—We see no reason for doubting the truth of the narration, and it seems evident that the case was what is commonly called *repelled gout*. Neither have we any hesitation in ascribing the death of the patient to the cold applications. At the same time; since the result of one case should not weigh too powerfully against a practice which may appear founded on rational principles, we cannot suppose that those who have been led to adopt the sentiments of Dr. Kinglake will conceive that their cause is much shaken by this pamphlet.

Besides the above case, as the title imports, a second is related, which also terminated unfavourably, in consequence of a similar kind of treatment: but, as it did not fall under Mr. Edlin's immediate notice, and is related on not very direct evidence, we cannot attach much importance to it.

ART. 26. *A Reply to Mr. Edlin's two Cases of Gout, &c.* By R. Kinglake, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray.

Dr. Kinglake's ardor was not calculated to permit Mr. Edlin's pamphlet to remain unanswered. He takes up his pen rather inspired than dismayed by the opposition which he has experienced; and if he be deficient in argument, he certainly possesses a superabundant quantity of zeal. He complains that his antagonist deals in personal invective, a charge of which we cannot altogether acquit him: but this is a figure of speech with which Dr. Kinglake himself very profusely adorns his pages.

In the first place, Dr. K. contends that Mr. Edlin should have given an account of the patient's constitution and previous state of health: in order that we might have been enabled to form a more correct judgment of the propriety of the treatment adopted. This we allow to be a fair objection against Mr. Edlin's pamphlet. Dr. K. seems to agree that the disease was gout, and in course approves of the refrigerant plan of treatment. In order, however, to account for the constitutional affections, he insinuates that they were in part brought on by the terror and agitation into which Mr. Edlin's visit had thrown the patient: and that the description of them is probably much exaggerated. The stimulant plan, which was adopted, he con-

siders as rather tending to aggravate than to remove the complaints; he thinks that cooling drinks would have been more appropriate remedies; and to the perseverance in the use of stimulants he ascribes the fatal event which ensued. Our readers will observe that Dr. Kinglake has not adduced any new facts respecting the case, but only attempts to reason differently respecting those which are stated by Mr. Edlin.

In the course of the pamphlet, the author launches out into a severe philippic against Dr. Blegborough, who unfortunately is not convinced of the propriety of the new practice; and Dr. Haworth, who visited the case in question during its latter stages, is also mentioned in that contemptuous manner which we have before had occasion to condemn in the author, and which cannot be too strongly reprobated. As if determined to conclude the discussion, Dr. K. denies that such a thing as *repelled gout* can exist; 'neither of them.' (Dr. Haworth and Mr. Edlin) 'with all their *slippancy* of decision, ever saw a case of repelled gout.' In order to prove that the author maintains his doctrines in their original purity, we shall conclude this article with quoting a paragraph from the present pamphlet, in which he explains the nature of those affections that have been generally referred to this head:

'The complaints usually arising in the system during protracted gout are indeed chiefly of the spasmodic kind. They proceed from the debilitating influence of long continued pain. They are of the tribe of the locked jaw, which is often induced by the exquisite torture occasioned by either sprained or wounded ligaments and tendons. An unreduced dislocation has frequently produced this afflicting disease. In this case, the inflammatory affection is on the ligaments and tendons, and, as affirmed in my dissertation on gout, is strictly identical with that disease.'

ART. 27. *Salutary Cautions respecting the Gout*: in which the doctrines maintained by Dr. Kinglake are exposed and refuted. By John Hunt. 8vo. 3s. R. Phillips.

This attack on Dr. Kinglake's new doctrines and practice, contains some judicious suggestions, but is not a performance of that decided merit which the subject demands. The author devotes a considerable portion of his work to a loose kind of declamation against his antagonist, and indulges much in irony and sarcasm: but we fear that neither his eloquence nor his wit will make any impression on his opponent. Mr. Hunt observes, and certainly with justice, that there is a considerable degree of vagueness in the relation of many of Dr. Kinglake's cases, as to the nature and extent of the symptoms, the duration of the disease, and the other remedies applied at the same time with the cold water. It may be collected from circumstances which are incidentally noticed, that in many instances the symptoms existed in a trifling degree only, and were by no means of that importance which Dr. Kinglake has assigned to them. Many of them would probably have disappeared nearly in the same manner by the natural efforts of the constitution; and there is reason for apprehending that some would be rather protracted than alleviated by the use

of the cold water. Although Dr. Kinglake places his sole confidence in the use of external cold, and attributes to this alone any good effects which were produced, it appears that in reality other medicines of considerable efficacy were liberally administered. The camphorated tincture of opium and the volatile tincture of guaiacum were generally prescribed, and in large doses; in some cases, the opium was taken to the extent of three grains in twenty-four hours. Bark and other tonics are said also to have been not unfrequently ordered, although they are mentioned casually, and no part of the cure is ascribed to them. A strange inconsistency is evident in several of the cases, where the complaints seem to have been produced by the *incidental* exposure to cold, and were afterward relieved by the *designed* application of the same agent. It may also be remarked that, notwithstanding the general impression of the efficacy of his practice, which Dr. Kinglake labors to convey, it will be manifest, on a closer examination of the cases, that the benefit obtained was by no means unequivocal. In one instance, which is mentioned as strikingly exhibiting the beneficial effects of external cold, the patient was obliged to be kept, as it is said, almost naked in water, for several weeks. Lastly, we may observe that, while Dr. Kinglake was obtaining so many testimonies in favor of his plan of treating gout, an entirely opposite method, viz. the immersion of the affected limbs in the vapor-bath, was recommended with equal confidence by other practitioners; who, like Dr. Kinglake, professed to found their belief of its virtues on the basis of experience.

#### DRAMATIC.

ART. 28. *To Marry or not to Marry*; a Comedy in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Mrs. Inchbald. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

Probability is here sacrificed to effect, in all the incidents of the piece; and natural simplicity in a young female, bordering almost too closely on the *natural*, is made to reverse the anti-amatory decrees of a proud bachelor, with as little propriety as could be ascribed to his former heresy. Some very commendable sentiments and skilful touches occur in the drama: but the extravaganza of its plot is calculated to disgust; and it is altogether more intitled to the rank of an after piece than that of a comedy. The character of Willowear is broad farce.

ART. 29. *Custom's Fallacy*, a Dramatic Sketch, in Three Acts, never performed. 8vo. 2s. Barker and Son.

The author of this play speaks of it with hesitation as being a first attempt: his denomination of it is modest; and his motto implies a wish to inculcate morality from the stage. His drama is calculated for this purpose; some parts of the dialogue are not without merit; and some of the characters are portrayed with animation. We cannot ascribe to it, however, any originality of design; and while it is not sufficiently elaborate for a comedy, it is too much lengthened and not enough ludicrous for what is called an *entertainment*.

ART.

ART. 30. *The Blind Bargain;* or, *Hear it Out*, a Comedy in Five Acts, as performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Co.

No frequenter of the theatre, or reader of modern plays, is unacquainted with the nature of Mr. Reynolds's dramatic productions. They are intended to create laughter, which they generally excite; and as we agree with our old friend Sancho Pança in eulogizing this wholesome convulsion, we are not inclined to criticise them with severity. Perhaps, however, it would be more advisable, certainly more defensible, to place them in the class of farces, than to attempt to elevate them to the dignity of comedies. The present composition has the same features with the author's former bantlings: the same whim and extravagance of plot, character, and incident; the same play upon words and allusions to modern manners in its dialogue: in fine, the same claims to temporary applause;—and temporary, we doubt not, it will prove.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

ART. 31. *Culina Famulatrix Medicina:* or Receipts in Modern Cookery; with a Medical Commentary, written by Ignotus, and revised by A. Hunter, M. D. F. R. S. L. & E. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Mawman.

The Spectator remarks, in one of his papers, that he is never present at a fine dinner without imagining that he sees gout, palsy, and rheumatism lurking in ambush among the dishes. The common people have the same idea, when they describe a glutton as digging his grave with his teeth. Though we cannot live without eating and drinking, it is certain that we shall live the longer and with the more comfort to ourselves, if our food be simple and the quantity moderate. Cookery, however, throws temptations in our way which few mortals have the power of withstanding; and the epicure regards a good table as one of the first of earthly blessings. Man might indeed boast of being "a cooking animal," if he did not cook himself into the grave; but rich sauces and high seasonings, the gifts of Culina, are in fact curses in disguise, however reluctant he may be to subscribe to so unpalatable a doctrine. Yet occasionally an individual may be found to listen to wholesome advice; and to him the hints of *Ignotus* and *Ignotus's* second self will be acceptable. This writer's first object is to induce us to treat the stomach with tenderness, for which purpose he explains the delicacy of its internal structure:

"The stomach is the prime organ of the human system, on the state of which all the powers and feelings of the individual depend. It is the kitchen that prepares our discordant food, and which, after due maceration, it delivers over, by a certain undulatory motion, to the intestines, where it receives a further concoction. Being now reduced into a white balmy fluid, it is sucked up by a set of small vessels, called lacteals, and carried to the thoracic duct. This duct runs up the back bone, and is in length about sixteen inches, but in diameter it hardly exceeds a crow quill. Through this small tube, the greatest part of what is taken in at the mouth passes, and when it has arrived at its greatest height, it is discharged into the left subclavian vein; when,



when, mixing with the general mass of blood, it becomes very soon blood itself.

We do not presume to give judgment on the real merit of the receipts which constitute the bulk of this volume, but many of them appear to be excellent, and prove Ignotus to be very far from being ignorant. In his observations, he has distinguished those which are wholesome from those which tend to generate disease. After a receipt for Hare Soup, he adds; 'To speak in praise of this soup, would be an eulogium on the gout;' after one for A Meagre Soup, 'This dish is a good preservative against gout and sourvy, and is held in great estimation by those physicians who have a greater regard for the health of their patients than their fees;' after another for A Partridge Soup; 'This is one of the dishes that escaped from Pandora's box;' and after one for preparing Mock Turtle Soup, 'This is a most diabolical dish, and only fit for the Sunday dinner of a rustic who is to work the six following days in a ditch bottom. It is the very essence of Pandora's box, so,—"Get thee behind me, Satan"'

: Thus admonition is conveyed with wit and humour; and the instructor warns us even when he smiles, and makes us smile with him.

Females, to whom the department of the kitchen commonly belongs, will find benefit from consulting this collection; for *Ignotus* will probably tell them many things which they do not know; and if they are not spoiled by the Boarding-school, they will have pleasure in trying many of these receipts. The list concludes with a Dish named *Common Sense*, which is a very uncommon thing, especially in great families; the editor, however, ventures to recommend it as a wholesome dish to all persons who are troubled with crudities and indigestions.

*Ignotus* kindly reminds us that, as matters are at present conducted, the Cook is the Physician's best friend.

Art. 32. *The Trident of Albion*, an Epic Effusion; and an Oration on the Influence of Elocution on martial Enthusiasm; with an Address to the Shade of Nelson; delivered at the Lyceum, Liverpool, on Occasion of the late glorious Victory. To which is prefixed an Introductory Discourse on the Nature and Objects of Elocutionary Science. By John Thelwall, Professor of the Science and Practice of Elocution. 8vo. 2s. 6d. R. Phillips.

Though Mr. Thelwall has for several years been so entirely occupied in his professional studies, as to have 'neither taste nor inclination for political disquisitions,' he is not indifferent to the blessings of national independence; nor can he survey without transport those victories by which it seems to be secured. His epic effusion has considerable merit, and it has also considerable defects. The idea with which it opens, of celebrating those heroes who, in different ages, have victoriously wielded the British Trident over the waves, is excellent, and suggests an admirable plan for a Naval Poem: but the thought is no sooner displayed than it is abandoned; for, after the mention of Raleigh, Blake, and Drake, the Muse leaps over many illustrious names in our maritime annals, eager to eulogise the triumphant

triumphant and expiring Nelson. The lines are appropriate to the subject ; and if the assertion be true that by the late sea victory we have redeemed the land's disasters, it ought to be matter of heart-felt thankfulness. Mr. T. draws a picture of the oppressed state of the Continent, and then asks :

' Where Albion now—where grasping Europe—where,  
But for our NELSON's providential care  
And dauntless Valour—where had been your hopes ?  
' For, see—portentous, o'er the Nations, glares  
The pestilential Scourge, and breathes around  
Dismay and Subjugation. Panic struck,  
The Austrian Eagle, from his powerless grasp,  
Lies fall the extinguish'd Thunder. One deep groan  
Thrills thro the Continent : and Britain hears.  
With sympathising horror. On each brow  
Sits dark Dismay, and heart-corroding Care,  
And boding Apprehension.

" Shall thy fields,

Fair Queen of Isles ! to the Invader's hoof  
Yield its soft verdure ? Shall thy bleating hills  
And fertile vallies witness the fierce strife  
Of doubtful Carnage ? and thy beatateous dames  
Shriek in the grasp of foreign Ravishers ?—  
Or scape pollution only thro the blood  
Of Husbands and of Brothers, in their sight  
Nobly expiring ?"

' While such thoughts distract,  
Albion, thy Inland Sons—lo ! thro the gloom,  
Forth from thy darken'd Coasts, indignant flies  
The Naval Thunder ; and once more averts,  
(O'er many a Sea loud pealing) the dread fate  
Of else-devoted Europe. On thy Car  
Of Sea-borne Triumph, lo ! the Veteran Chief,  
By *thrice twice* twenty Victories renown'd,  
Controls the Waves. Iberia feels once more,  
Leagued with the Gaul, that every league is vain,  
When sounds thy warrior Conch ; and Gaul, that own'd,  
From rescu'd Nilus,—that " o'er Ocean's realm  
" Thou reign'st invincible," again bewails  
Her impotent presumption.

' From her fears

The rescu'd World revives ;—*the Sea redeems*  
*The Land's disasters* ; and from Albion's shores  
Ascends the Song of Triumph.'

In compliment to his Lancaster friends, he terms the Mersey 'foremost of Tradeful rivers : ' but the Thames and Severn protest against this compliment.

Mr. T.'s language is not so correct as we should have expected from a professed orator.

' While with a voice *might* wake'  
is not grammar, and the line

' On

‘ On ominous pinion, with blood-drooping beak’,  
is redundant in quantity.

The oration which precedes *The Trident of Albion* evinces Mr. T.’s knowledge of the principles of Elocution ; and that which follows it manifests his actual powers as an Orator. The apostrophe to the shade of Nelson is a commendable specimen of eloquence, even more impressive than his poetic efforts :

‘ What grasp of mind can comprehend — what power of language can do justice, to the invincible spirit — the fertility of invention and resource, under every circumstance of difficulty and danger, displayed by this great commander ? — to that rapidity of conception — that promptitude of thought, which perceived the bearings of every exigency ; and devised and adopted, on the instant, the plans of attack, manœuvre and operation, which the circumstances, however unexpected, might require ? — to that collected boldness and impetuous hardihood, which realised, in action, every project, which his boundless Science and fertile genius had devised ? — and, above all, to that rapidity of evolution, from post to post, from sea to sea, from pole almost to pole, — which seemed, as it were, to control the very elements ; and, like the motion and operations of lightning, gave an appearance of omnipresence to his resistless courage ?

‘ Eulogy has no metaphor that can do justice to this splendid career ; and panegyric itself must borrow its language from the simple pages of historical record, if it would paint, even in an individual instance, the enterprising activity of his fiery spirit ; when, yet in a subordinate situation, in the conflict of doubtful battle, he seized the moment of critical conjuncture ; and, attacking, with his single, smaller vessel, the well-seconded force of a superior foe, he passed, sword in hand, from his own deck, up the towering sides of his enemy ; overpowered the desperate resistance of its crew ; and then made the mastered vessel, a step, as it were, from which, with equal impetuosity and success, he passed to another, of still superior magnitude, and overwhelmed all opposition with a courage, which appeared to be supernatural.

‘ But this was only a prelude to those splendid achievements, in every part of which he displayed an equal mixture of enthusiasm and presence of mind. To him, wounds, hardships, sufferings, privations, and mutilations, presented no obstructions in the career of duty. “ Victory, or Westminster Abbey ! — a glorious life, or an honourable tomb,” seem to have been regarded, almost as equal blessings ; and the loss of limbs, and the abridgement of the powers of exterior sense, appear only to have concentrated the patriotic fire that burned within, and to have increased the valour and comprehension of his soul.

‘ And can we remember, without emotions of gratitude, the benefits which this comprehension and this valour have conferred upon his country ? — whose fate it is, perhaps, too much to say that he has averted — (since the danger may yet return ; — and since, even in the last extremities, “ come what come may,” Britons may surely rely on the energies of their united valour !) but whose shores he has, at any rate, for awhile, preserved, from the impending ravages of invasion. And

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can we,—while we taste (tho' but for a while) the renovated blessing of security, forget—that he who conferred that blessing is no more to be a participator of its enjoyments.

' Upon such a subject, grief might, assuredly, be eloquent; and the voice of lamentation might be heard in every street.

' But no—Heroic Spirit! Not such are the Tears that should embalm thy memory; not such is the mourning with which thy obsequies should be accompanied. Let effeminate sorrow melt over the pale victims of affliction and disease! Let the dirges of lamentation resound over the grave of virgin loveliness, cropped in its vernal bloom: but the Tomb of the Hero, is the Temple of his Triumph; and the Trophies, that adorn it, are the Altars on which compatriot youths should offer up their vows of emulation.

' Yes! thou heroic spirit! if, yet conscious to the transactions of this fragile world, thou hoverest, with patriotic solicitude, over the country thou hast so bravely defended—Yes, thou wilt exclaim, "By other actions acknowledge my services and estimate my loss, than by tears and lamentations! by other offerings consecrate my memory than by the dirges of desponding sorrow. Proclaim your admiration, by imitating my example; and, with pen of adamant, engrave upon your hearts the language of my last injunction. Landsmen, as well as seamen, may yet be summoned to the exertions and the sacrifices it demands. Even yet, upon your coasts, you may be called upon to repel the invader:—and, if you should,—keep then in your recollections—*what England expects of every individual*; and write your remembrances of me with your swords!"

' We hear thee, patriotic Spirit!—We receive thy awful admonitions—not into our ears, but into our hearts:—those hearts, from which we breathe, with determined unanimity, the fervent—the inviolable vow, "To assert—as thou hast asserted, even in death, the independence of our country; and to prove, under all extremities, that we are not forgetful of the injunctions, or the example, of the Heroic Martyr of Trafalgar."

Such an apostrophe, enforced by the charms of correct and animated Elocution, must have produced a powerful effect on the audience.

#### LAW.

Art. 33. *An Inquiry into the Origin and Influence of the controverted Rule of Law, called the Rule in Shelley's Case.* Suggested by the late Decisions of *Sweet v. Herring*, in the King's-Bench, and *Poole v. Poole* and others, in the Common Pleas. By Jacob Philip, of the Inner-Temple, Esq. 8vo. pp. 61. 2s. 6d. Bick-erstaff. 1805.

The object of this little pamphlet will be collected from the following extract;

' The Rule intended to be discussed is laid down in *Shelley's case*, in these words:

"It is a Rule in Law, that, when the ancestor by any gift or conveyance taketh an estate of freehold, and, in the same gift or conveyance, an estate is limited, either mediately or immediately, to his heirs

heirs in fee, or in tail, that always in such cases, (the heirs) are words of limitation of the estate and not of purchase."

' Various have been the discussions of this celebrated rule, and almost equally various the conclusions. Perhaps there is no one other point in the whole code of our law, on which there has been such a discordancy of opinion or such a combat of talent. The conclusions which have been formed on the rule may be divided into three classes.

' 1. Some have considered the rule as a mere contest about words, and then proceeding on the idea, that there is no magic in words, have denied its influence.

' 2. Others have admitted the existence of the rule, but considered it as subservient to the intention and as a mere rule of interpretation.

' 3. Others again have deemed the rule to be inflexible and imperative, directly levelled at the intention, and uniformly paramount to and subverting it.

' We shall divide this discussion into three parts ;

' 1. An inquiry into the origin and principle of the rule.

' 2. An inquiry into the foundation of the objections to the rule.

' 3. An inquiry into the influence and authority of the rule.'

Treading in the steps of Lord Chief Baron Gilbert, Mr. Phillips deduces the grounds of the rule from the feudal system. When a tenant came into the possession of a fee in any other way than by descent, the Lord was deprived of the advantages of wardship, marriage, &c. and was reduced to his simple rights. This circumstance sufficiently explains why the old law would not allow to the ancestor, the power of making his right or special heir take as purchaser. In deeds, this rule is to this day strictly followed ; so that, in them, heirs of the body cannot be words of purchase : but in wills these terms are to be construed according to the obvious intention of the testator. The practice of courts, as it strikes us, has wisely introduced this qualification : but that practice is here impeached ; we think, without any good reason. We can see no solid ground for maintaining that the misapprehension of a term, on the part of a testator, should give to his testamentary disposition a meaning and an operation most different from that which he intended. By the present practice, due effect is given to wills, agreeably to the enactments of the legislature and to sound policy ; while the rule of law, properly applied, remains in all its force.

*Art. 34. The Student's Guide through Lincoln's Inn: containing an Account of that Honourable Society, the Forms of Admission, Keeping Terms, Performing Exercises, Call to the Bar, and other useful Information. By Thomas Lane, Steward. The 2d Edition. 12mo. 7s. To be had at the Steward's Office. 1805.*

This useful manual is well adapted to answer the purposes for which it is more immediately designed, and deserves the patronage which it has experienced from the Society and the Public. Though it principally claims the attention of professional Gentlemen, and of Parents and others who are intitled to direct the pursuits of youth, it contains information which will prove interesting to the curious in general ;

general; since it distinctly traces the avenues which lead to the higher branch of the legal profession. Lincoln's Inn is regarded as one of the most considerable of our law foundations, and numerous particulars relating to it are here detailed. The volume describes its antiquities, its present state, and that of its appendages, the treasures of the library, the preliminaries to initiation, the mystery of eating commons, the expences incident to the noviciate, the terms of residence, the mode of obtaining the degree of barrister, and the rank, privileges, and duties of the several members of this distinguished body. The respect shewn to religion by the provisions made for its maintenance is with propriety remarked; and a list is inserted of various characters in the state, the law, and the church, which have belonged to, or been connected with, the Society.

The biographical sketches, which are interspersed throughout the volume, add materially to the interest of it; and we should have been glad to have met with a greater number of them: perhaps in a future edition the author may increase this portion of his work. It is illustrated by a correct plan of Lincoln's Inn, and plates containing facsimiles of the hand-writing of several eminent characters; of that of King Charles II., and of various illustrious persons in his suite who entered themselves at Lincoln's Inn on the 29th of Feb. 1671, &c. &c.

## MILITARY.

**Art. 35.** *Twenty Three Year's Practice and Observations with Rifle Guns*, by Ezekiel Baker, Gun-maker, and Rifle gun maker to the Prince of Wales, opposite Whitechapel Church, London. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Sold by the Author, and by Egerton.

Concise practical directions are here given for attaining skill in this assassinating art, which appear, as the title asserts, to be the result of experience. While it is deemed allowable to bring down our fellow-creatures individually, as the game keeper selects his buck, such instructions for the management of the Rifle as Mr. Baker here gives will be found very useful. — Coloured Plates are added, exhibiting the Rifleman in the different attitudes of presenting: standing, kneeling, on his back, on his belly; with the representations of some experiments at Targets with guns constructed by the author.

**Art. 36.** *Instructions for the Use of Yeomanry and Volunteer Corps of Cavalry.* By Colonel Herries of the Light Horse Volunteers of London and Westminster. Part II. Crown 8vo. pp. 300. 10s. 6d. Boards. Egerton. &c.

The first part of this work, which has already been announced with approbation\*, was allotted to the drill, and to the formation of a squadron. In the present, the Colonel details the Standing Orders of the Regiment which he commands, which are in course adapted to its particular circumstances and construction, but which are all conformable to the articles of war, the orders of the Commander in Chief, and his Majesty's regulations. Then follow Extracts

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\* See M. Rev. Vol. xliii. N. S. p. 446.

from general Rules and Orders for his Majesty's forces, applicable to Volunteers corps when on service; and next, also taken from the King's Regulations, the formation of a Regiment for parade and exercise, and a series of movements and attacks recommended to Yeomanry and Volunteers Corps of Cavalry. The Words of Command for the manœuvres are given on the left hand page, with diagrams representing the position on the opposite leaf. Copies of various returns and reports are subjoined.

This publication is in course principally calculated for the Regiment of Light Horse Volunteers of London, but will be very useful to the Officers and privates of all other cavalry corps of this description. Colonel H. appears to have devoted great attention to its complement; and his knowledge of the peculiarities attached to the *Volunteer Soldier* has enabled him to advert to various points which are not included in the official *Manual for Volunteer Cavalry*.

## SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 37. Preached Nov. 17, 1805, in the Independent Chapel, Penzance, Cornwall; occasioned by the Death of Lord Nelson. Published by request\*. By the Rev. John Foxell. 8vo. 1s. Baynes.

Divines are prone to intermeddle with politics, but they do not always shew their discretion. From an energetic praise of the merits of Lord Nelson, and from deep lamentations of his loss, Mr. Foxell at once proceeds to draw a contrast between the British Hero and the Saviour of the World: but did the preacher's audience want to be told that there was no comparison between political victories and the blessings of salvation? In other respects, the sermon is unobjectionable; inculcating pious, loyal, and patriotic sentiments.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

Dr. Ortolani's Letter shall be considered, when we have before us another volume of the work to which it refers.

The object of F.'s inquiry is not overlooked, but we have prior claims to satisfy. How often do we perceive that the impatience of authors prevents them from allowing for the very extensive duties of Reviewers!—The *second* letter is also received.

☞ In the last *Appendix*, p. 502. l. 4. for 'Princess,' r. *Princes*.—P. 508. l. 27. put a comma after 'remote'; and l. 28. for 'sciences,' r. *science*.—P. 527. l. 3. from the bott. insert the word '*little*' before 'more'.—P. 530. l. 10. from bott. for 'pursuits,' r. *pursuit*.

In the Number for January, P. 78. l. 7. from bott. insert a comma after '*parishes*'.—P. 103. l. 7. for 'perplexity,' r. *prolixity*.

\* We have often heard of this Publisher, but we could never learn where he resides.



THE  
MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MARCH, 1806.

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ART. I. *Comic rum Græcorum Fragmenta quedam. Curavit & Notæ addidit, R. Walpole, A. B. Trin. Col. Cant. 8vo. pp. 115. 5s. Boards. Mawman. 1805.*

WHEN this small volume was first delivered into our hands, we felt much gratified on perceiving that, after the interval of many years, some scholar had undertaken to republish, in a convenient and respectable form, a portion of those fragments which learned men had long considered as highly valuable. They give, indeed, a most accurate description of the manners and customs of a polished nation, at the height of its splendour; and they possess in themselves the intrinsic value of being the best models of a correct and refined taste.—We were much pleased, also, that a young man of Mr. Walpole's birth and connexions had submitted himself to the drudgery of verbal criticism; and when we reflected on the reputation for classical learning which he had acquired by his exertions at the University, and on the assistance afforded him by the first scholar of the age, we were elevated, as our readers may easily conceive, with no common expectations. How far those expectations have been realized, and how far they have been frustrated, may be collected from the strictures which we shall now offer on the pages before us; and which we shall communicate with freedom and with minuteness, conceiving it to be our duty to reprobate the defects as well as to commend the excellencies of works that elaim the particular notice of literati.

In a short preface, the editor, having bestowed his tribute of praise on the elegance of attic poetry, expresses his regret, in which every scholar will join, for the loss which Greek literature sustained by the non-accomplishment of the great Bentley's project for a complete collection of the fragments of Greek Poetry. He then proceeds to state the defects of the collections of Morellus, Hertelius, and Grotius; and the material assistance which may be derived in the correction of such defects, from the works of modern critics.



As a specimen of his Latinity, we transcribe the conclusion of the preface:

*'Ingratus autem essem quam qui maxime, si ea silentio præterirem, quæ RICARDUS PORSON, vir. supra præconiis meum longissime paratus, non minus docte quam humaniter mecum communicare dignatus est. Meminerit velim lector, viri eruditissimi emendationes in notis sequentibus litteram P. habere subjunctam.*

*'Superest, priusquam matum de tabula tollam, ut ob ea quæcunque in hoc opere a me vel errata vel peccata fuerint, lectori intercedam. Minime dubito quin materia ardua difficilique parum satisfecero. "Sed audere non dedecet, et si quid desit operi, supplet ætas: et si qua dicta sunt juveniliter, pro indole accipiuntur." Quintilian.—Si vero vel tantillum aliquorum studia in huius comædiæ Græcæ reliquiis indagandis et illustrandis aut crexerim aut exsuscitârim, laboris suscepti nequaquam penitebit, votique mei esse videbor omnino compos.'*

We shall now proceed regularly through the volume, and examine it article by article; and as Mr. W. has omitted (we presume, through inadvertence,) to register the places of the authors who cite the several fragments, we shall endeavour to supply this defect by giving a reference to each, before we begin our remarks on them as published in the work before us.

P. 1. & not. p. 85. Cratinus *Pytina*. From Schol. Aristoph. Equit. 523. Suidas vv. Ἀπίτια. Ἀπιδιδακταῖον ἀπίτια. The first three verses appear also in Tzetzes's *Chiliad*. viii. c. 184.

Mr. W. informs us that the play, whence this fragment was taken, was acted Olymp. 89, 1. two years before the *Flatterers* of Eupolis; and that the argument of it is to be found in the Schol. Aristoph. Equit. 100. The verses of it quoted by Priscian, to whom he refers without mentioning the page, are to be found p. 232. ed. Ald. p. 1181. ed. Putsch. Those from the Schol. on Soph. Aj. 105. may be seen also in Suidas v. Ἰερμίωνος. The words '*Inter dramata—Hephestione*,' should have been more particularly assigned to Casaubon in Athen. col. 985. (not. 986.) and the correction of the Schol. Aristoph. Eq. 530. should have been attributed to Fabricius, Bibl. Gr. II. 22. Vol. I. p. 753. ed. 1718.

V. 2. The reference to Casaubon's *Epistles* is wrong. The 160th *Epistle* is not directed to Scaliger, either in the edition of Grævius or in that of Almeloveen. We have not leisure to make out the reference: but, as this inaccuracy of quotation is not uncommon with Mr. W., we cannot help expressing our sorrow that he should have been so careless in a point of the first importance to a critical scholar, and in consequence of which his readers must be subjected to the greatest inconvenience. The passages of Æschines and of Meursius were quoted by Toup. Em. T. III. p. 57. ed. Oxon.

V. 3. 'Legendum potius το τῇ Φαίρῳ.' Why did not Mr. W. state to his readers the countenance which Suidas gives to this correction?

P. 1 & 84. Eupolis. Δῖμος. From Stobæus Flor. p. 163. ed. Grot. and printed by Mr. W. after Brunck. ad Aristoph. Ran. 733.

P. 2 & 84. ——— From Schol. Aristoph. Acharn. §29. & Diodorus Siculus XII. 40.

Κῶλαξ. From Athenæus VI. 236. E. This fragment has been restored to its primæval purity by the *Phidiana manus* of Professor Porson. The emendation of the 15th line displays such acuteness, that we cannot refrain from the pleasure of presenting it to our readers in Mr. Walpole's words; on which we shall afterward add a remark. 'Editum legebatur σῶμα γὰρ ἕπας ἔλεγες. Egregia est Porsoni emendatio. Verbis ipsissimis utitur Eupolis in Προσπαλτίως, vide Schol. ad Aristoph. Vesp. 57. Necnon Myrtilus in fabula cui titulus Titanopanest uti ex Aspasii commentariis ad Aristotelem indicavit nobis vir idem eruditissimus. Apud Meursii Bib. Att. lib. IV. male legitur τιτανοπαισιον.' The first sentence of this note contains a glaring misrepresentation. The editions of Aldus, of Valderus, and of Casaubon, read ἕπας ἔλεγεν. Professor Schweighæuser also retains ἔλεγεν in his context, and takes no notice of any variation at the bottom of the page. In his animadversions, however, he states that in his old MS. "non ἔλεγεν scribi, sed ἔλεγες: quod quum speciem habeat interpretationis verbi vulgo præcedentis ἕπας, videndum est ne aliud ulcus hic loci lateat." On this observation of the Strasburg Professor, we shall make no comment: the ἕπ' ἀσέλγῃς of Professor Porson carries conviction with itself, even were it unsupported by any adventitious testimony. We wish that Mr. W. had quoted at length the fragment of Eupolis ap. Schol. Aristoph. The other passage he certainly ought to have fully transcribed, since it is to be found only in one book, and that one is not very easily to be procured. As many of our readers may not have an opportunity of consulting it, we shall give it at large.—It occurs in the commentary on Aristotle's Ethics, commonly, though erroneously, ascribed to Eustratius, ap. Aldum 1536. p. 53. b. καὶ λαμπρύνεται παρὰ μέλος. παροιμία ἐπὶ τῶν μὲ προσφύρας τί ποιῶν ἐιωθότων. καὶ κομωδῶν χρησιγῶν, σύνθεσις ἐν κομῶδιᾳ παραπετάσματα δέξις ποιῶν ὃν πορφυρίδας\* μυρτίλος ἐν τιτανόπαισι τὸ, δεινῆς ἀκούεις πράξεις. τοῦτίστι ποι τὸ σῶμα\* ἀσέλγῃς καὶ μεγαρινὸν καὶ σφῶδρα ψυχρὸν γελᾷ, ἔργα τὰ παῖδια. Several things in this passage require correction: but we must hasten to the next fragment.

\* Respecting the title of this play of Myrtilus, the reader may consult Kuster's note on Suidas, T. II. p. 592. n. 4.

P. 5 & 85. An uncertain fragment of the same author. From Stobæus Flor. p. 31. ed. Grot. This piece is also much indebted to Mr. Porson's corrections.

P. 6 & 86. Plato. *Homicida*, from Athen. VII. p. 279. C.

Συνεξαπατῶντι, from Athen. III. p. 103.

C. VII. p. 279. A. v. 11. εἶρακας οὐν φιλόσοφον ἔπε μοι τινα.

*Hunc versum ita legendum censuit Dawesius Misc. Crit. p. 202.*

*quod Schw. videtur fugisse.* Mr. W., we think, has in this

place censured Schweighæuser very undeservedly; for Dawes

refers his readers to VII. p. 279. where this fragment occurs,

correctly written. Εἶρακας, too, is not the emendation of

Dawes, but of Tyrwhitt, in Dr. Burgess's appendix to the

*Miscell. Crit.* p. 454.

P. 7 & 87. Pherecrates Ἀσπίοις, from J. Pollux X. 150.

This fragment springs from Bentley's Letter to Hemster-

husius; and the reference to Suetonius in the note should

have been attributed to Casaubon, from whom it was taken.

Sueton. Ed. Burm. I. p. 154.

P. 8 & 88. Alexis Ἀσπυδοδασκάλῳ, from Athen. VIII.

p. 336. E. F. On this fragment, we offered some remarks in

our Review of Prof. Porson's *Hecuba*, &c. when we were

discussing the quantity of the comparatives in ἰων. (p. 436,

437.) They were written undoubtedly for the use of the

public; and to have our observations honoured by the coun-

tenance of Scholars must be truly gratifying to us. At the

same time, however, we wished and expected to enjoy the ho-

nest fruit of our labours, by having them fairly and candidly

acknowledged: but these remarks Mr. W. has copied without

the slightest notice of our prior claim to them, and without

any addition excepting a reference to Larcher's French trans-

lation of Herodotus VII. p. 321. Yet he has in other in-

stances specified some of our strictures.—Our readers, we doubt

not, are well aware that Plagiaries \* were not uncommon in

the earliest times of antiquity, and that the greatest men have

very much suffered in reputation by literary thefts. Though

we by no means intend to draw a parallel between our *disco-*

*veries* and those of Thales, we cannot refrain from reciting a

story of that celebrated philosopher as related by Apuleius,

which we recommend to Mr. Walpole's serious perusal. "*Li*

*a se recens inventum Thales memoratur edocuisse Mandragalum*

*Prienensem, qui nova et inopinata cognitione impendio delectatus,*

*optare jussit quantam vellet mercedem sibi pro tanto documento re-*

*pendi. Satis, inquit, mihi fuerit mercedis, Thales sapiens, si id,*

\* The diligent reader will consult Morhoff's Polyhistor, in various passages, on the subject of Plagiarisms, with much advantage.

quod a me didicisti, cum proferre ad quospiam ceperis, tibi non adsciveris : sed ejus inveni me potius quam alium repertorem praedicaveris." Florid. p. 361. ed. Elmenhorst. cf. Mureti Var. Lect. XII. 12.

V. 2. Mr. W. prefers the reading of Casaubon, (and he might have added, of Aldus,) to that of Grotius and the MSS.

V. 4. 'Emendationem Casauboni quam textus exhibet Toupius probat ad Theocr. p. 333. Displicet autem ista repetitio vocis Σινον.' Whether this emendation of Casaubon be right, or not, we will not decide: but we must own that it always appeared to us sufficiently probable. We wish that the present editor had stated his reasons for disapproving it.

P. 9 & 89. Alexis Tarentinis, from Athen. XI. p. 463. D.

In the second line, Mr. W. adopts the lection of Grotius, without informing his readers that the editions as well as the MSS. exhibit τὸ αὐτὸ διατριβῆς χάριν.

V. 5. 'Lege ἂν ᾖ τι φράσαι, pro ἂν τι φράσαι.' The first edition by Casaubon gives ἀντιφράσαι, which is adopted by Schweighæuser. The MSS. however, omit τι; on which Schweighæuser, with his accustomed sagacity, remarks, "*Videndum na alia quapiam ratione refingendum fuerit illud bemistichium.*"

V. 10. ἀφιγμένους. The MSS., it should be remembered, read ἀπειμένους, and v. 14. τύχη τ' not τύχη γ'.

P. 10 & 89. Alexis. From Athen. II. 55. A.

'V. 10. τοῦ βίον ἐστίν legendum pro τοῦ βίου ἐστίν, quod Schw. dedit, metro reclamante.' We see no occasion for this change, βίος & βιότος, indeed, have been frequently confounded: but, as the Anapaestic measure allows this hiatus, we are inclined to retain the lection of all the copies.

P. 11 & 90. Alexis. From Athen. II. p. 36. A. 'Πῶς, autem hanc totam, quæ Alexiḃi forsan tribuenda, soluta oratione vertit Musonius de Luxu Græc. c. 3.' The work of Stephanus Niger, intitled Musonii Opus, to which Mr. W. alludes, is to be found in the VIIIth vol. of Gronovius's *Thesaurus Antiquitatum*, &c. c. 2464—2528. Mr. W. quotes it again in a note on Philemon, p. 111. where he might as well have given the words of Athenæus, of which this Musonius is a mere translation. The work of Nicolaus adduced in the note to v. 12. was printed Helmstadii 1679, 4to. without any numerical notation of pages. The passage cited occurs in c. 5. § 1.

P. 12 & 91. Antiphanes *Omphale*, Athen. III. p. 112. D. This fragment is printed after Prof. Porson's most ingenious correction, in his supplemental sheet to the Heinsian edition of Simplicius's commentary on Epictetus.

Ib. *Milite*. From Athen. III. p. 103. E. F.

P. 13 & 91. Antiphanes, Athen. II. 38. B.

V. 5. τὰθ', it should have been stated, is the lection of the MSS.

P. 14 & 92. Anaxandrides, as quoted by Prof. Porson in a note on Eurip. Orest. 228.

Ib. From Stobæus Grot. p. 277.

P. 15 & 92. Aristoph. *Pythagorists*, Athen. VI. p. 238. C.

16 Ib. From Athen XIII. p. 563. B.

From Athen. IV. 161. F. Athenæus, in our present copies, assigns this fragment to Aristophanes. Mr. W. has followed the decision of Menæge, cited in Schweighæuser's note.

P. 17. Id. Ib. From Diogenes Laertius VIII. p. 223. ed. Lond. & Suidas v. Πυθαγόρας. On this Fragment, Mr. W. has not bestowed a single remark.

P. 18 & 95. Ephippus ἐμπολῆ. From Athenæus VIII. 363. C. & XIII. p. 571. E. F. In the latter of these places, it may be observed, this fragment is ascribed to *Eusebemus*; a person, as Schweighæuser remarks\*, of whom there is no mention elsewhere made. The subject of this play is expounded by Casaubon in a note on Suetonius IV. 40. p. 413. ed. Græv. & not. lib. III. as Mr. W. informs us. Schweighæuser seems to have searched for this passage in vain: "*Quo potissimum parte sui in Suetonium commentarii mentionem fecerit Casaubonus hujus fabule, non habeo in promptu indicare*;" and in his *Corrigenda Animadv.* vol. VIII. p. 458. "*Casaubonum vide ad Suetonii Caligulam, c. 4.*"; which false reference is more calculated to perplex his readers than no reference at all.

P. 18 & 95. Epicrates, Athen. II. p. 59. '*In hac apospasmatis redintegrando Schw. ἡμῶτεν οὐδ' ἔτυχεν. Totum palmætiis Porsoni emendationibus restitutum lectori proponimus.*'

V. 20. Πρώτιστα μὲν οὖν—the reading of Scaliger.

V. 33. as it now stands, does not altogether please us. We should prefer the following arrangement:

τὸ γὰρ ἐν λίσχαις τοιῶσδε τοιαῦτ'  
ἄσπερες ποιεῖν, οὐδ' ἐμέλησεν  
τοῖς μερακίοις (τῆς κολοκύντης)  
ὁ Πλάτων δὲ παρῶν, καὶ μάλα πρῶτος  
οὐδὲν ὀρμηθεὶς, ἐπίταξ' αὐτοῖς  
(παλιν) ἐξ ἀρχῆς ἀφορίζεσθαι  
τίνος ἐστὶ γένους· δι' δὲ διήρουν.

The words τῆς κολοκύντης do not occur in the edd. or MSS. παλιν v. pen. also has been supplied by conjecture, and is well

\* "*Inauditum alias nomen.*" Not. in Libr. VIII. p. 674. Suidas has enrolled his name, as a comic writer, in his Lexicon, but refers indeed to Athenæus. Eudocia omits him.

supported by Mr. W. from the Pax 1327. and Plutus 221. We may also refer our readers to Pherecrates, Athen. VI. p. 269. C. αὐθις ἐξ ἀρχῆς Philemon Stobæi p. 443. ed. Grot. See also Suidas in V. Αὐθις.

P. 21 & 96. Eubulus, Athen. II. p. 36. D. & Suidas v. Οἶνος. Mr. W. assigns this fragment to the play intitled Δῶνυσος, with much probability. We are glad to see the ninth line of this piece once more correctly printed; and we sincerely hope that no critic will in future be hardy enough to adduce it for an example of an anapæst following a dactyl. V. Herman *de Metris*, p. 155.

P. 21 & 96. Id. Καμπυλίωσι. Athen. XIII. p. 562. C. Mr. W. seems not to have been aware that ὁ ἀντίφας is merely an error of the press in Casaubon's 2d and 3d edd. since Aldus & Valderus & Cas. ed. 1. exhibit the true reading \*. V. 8. Mr. W. publishes λῆρος ἂν φήσῃε τις, after Grotius. λῆρος ἦν καὶ φήσῃε τις Ald., &c. λῆρος ἢ καὶ φ. MS.

P. 22 & 96. Id. Στεφανοπαλίσιν. Athen. XIII. p. 557. F.

P. 23 & 97. Id. *Chryssa*, Athen. XIII. p. 559. C.

P. 24 & 98. Phœnicides from Stobæus, p. 43. ed. Grot.

V. 3. The editor adopts H. Stephens's lection ἐπίτευχον, and in v. 6. proposes, if we rightly understand him, ἐδείκνυθ' ἄμα. Grotius ed. has ἐδίωκνυ δ'.

V. 16. The note on this verse is borrowed without acknowledgement from our Review for Jan. 1799, p. 100. The reader, if he deem it *tanti*, may see our observations translated into Latin in M. Herman's Commentary affixed to his ed. of Aristotle's Poetics, p. 101. who has treated us with that civility and candour which become the real scholar and the enlightened critic,

V. 18. The reference to Athenæus should have been p. 559. Mr. W. might also have observed that Pierson, probably through haste, has ascribed this fragment to Aristophanes.

P. 25 & 99. Philetærus. *Κυννυίδι*. From Athen. VII. p. 280. C. Mr. W. informs us that Prof. Porson had been led to suspect, from a comparison of Suidas, vv. Φιλέταιρος. Νικίστρατος, that both these names really and truly belonged to the same individual person, '*Hanc Porsoni conjecturam extra omnem dubitationis aleam ponit Scholion quantivis pretii, quod, literis præ vetustate obtutus oculorum pæne fugientibus, ex MS. Platonis Dialogorum nobiscum perbenigne communicavit vir eruditissimus.*' We cannot help expressing a wish that Mr. W. could have gratified the

\* Our readers will not repent if they will take the trouble of consulting Jos. Scaliger's note on Propertius, p. 191. ed. 1577.

world at large with a sight of this precious relic of antiquity. As, however, we are aware that he may have had very good reasons for suppressing it, we desist from any farther complaint.

V. 3. Mr. W. has placed in his text the lection of the celebrated Veneto-Parisian MS. Aldus gives τούτ' αὐτὰ τὰνθρώπει, ὁρῶν τὰ πρᾶγματα, and Casaubon τούτ', αὐτὰ τὰνθρώπει ὁρᾶντα πρᾶγματα.

V. 5. εἰς αὐριον δὲ οὐχι. Casaub. *hiatu non ferendo. Eminentio Schweighæuseri*, εἰς αὐριον δὲ μὴ φροντίζειν ἢ τι καὶ, *versum deformiter claudicantem protulit. Grotium secuti sumus.* Aldus gives the verse thus: εἰς αὐριον δὲ φροντίζειν ἢ τι, whence we might perhaps read, adopting in a great measure the correction of Casaubon, εἰς αὐριον δὲ μὴ φροντίζειν ἢ τι ἵσταται. It once occurred to us that the whole passage might be reformed thus:

ἀλλὰ δὲ σκοπεῖν  
 . . . τούτ' αὐτὸν, ἀνθρώπει ὁρᾶντα πρᾶγματα,  
 εἰς αὐριον δὲ μὴ φροντίζειν ἢ τι.  
 . . . ἔτ' οὐ περ ἐργὸν ἔστιν ἀποκῆσθαι πάντ'  
 ἔωλον ἔνδον ἀργυρίου.

Our readers will find the phrase ἔτ' οὐ περίεργον in a fragment of Alexis ap. Athen. III. p. 123. F.

P. 26 & 100. Timocles Διονυσιαζούσαις. Athen. VI. p. 223. & Stobæus Grot. p. 509.

V. 12. ΑΛΚΜΕΩΝ *habet marmor Sandvicense. 'Alkmaïων' exhibit textus contra analogiam et metrum.* This passage is produced by Salmasius, (*ad ovum Simmiae*, p. 166.) for the express purpose of shewing that a diphthong or long vowel may be made short when followed by another, which it would not require much of either learning or diligence to prove in a very satisfactory manner. For example: δειλαιος has a short penultimate in more than one passage of Aristophanes; see also Eubulus ap. Athenæum IX. p. 559. C. and in this very collection, p. 23. Πειραιῶς Alexis Athen. XIII. p. 562. A. Without giving ourselves the trouble of accumulating more instances, we may hence conclude that the received reading 'Alkmaïων' is not detrimental to the metre. As to the analogy, we confess that we are at a loss for Mr. W.'s meaning. We ought, however, to observe that Αλκμεών is found more than once in the Medicean MS. of Herodotus: but Wesseling retains the other orthography. See his as well as J. Gronovius's note on lib. I. c. 59.

P. 27 & 101. Mnesimachus, Athen. X. 421. C. This fragment has been restored to its pristine integrity by Mr. Porson, who has also illustrated it by some verses from Le  
 ) Grand's

*Grand's Fabliaux.* We recommend Mr. W.'s note to the attention of our readers.

P. 28 & 102. Xenarchus. Πεντάβλ. Athen. XIII. p. 569.

P. 29 & 104. Macho, Athen. XIII. printed after Mr. Porson on the Medea 1343.

P. 30 & 105. Macho, Athen. VIII. p. 341. V. 3. Mr. W. rightly prints *πουλύποδα*, after Grotius; and in this correction he is supported by the MSS. The Attic poets, we believe, invariably used *πουλύπους*. In v. 8. he might have stated that the editions exhibit *ὤς* instead of *ὕς*, which latter is the reading of Grotius and the MSS.

V. 19. ὁ Τιμοθέου χάρων σχολάζειν μ' οὐκ ἔρ'  
οὐκ τῆς Νίξεως χωρεῖν δὲ πορθμὴν ἀναβοᾷ, &c.

Thus the passage is represented in Aldus, and we think that it ought not to have been disturbed, though the MSS. in the first line have *σχολάζει οὐκ ἔρ*.

P. 31 & 105. Theophilus, φιλαύλ. Athen. XIII. p. 563. A.—The first four lines of this fragment are to be found in Stobæus Flor. XIII. p. 243. Grot. where they are ascribed to Antiphanes. The MSS. of Athenæus in the first line read *τίς φησι*. Stobæus ed. 3. Gesneri gives *ἢ τις φ*. We might perhaps follow Grotius in *notis*, who has nearly expressed Gesner's margin; *ἐν τοῖς ἐρωήλεις φησί τις ἰοῦν οὐκ ἔχειν*. The third line would be more rhythmical, if a transposition were adopted; *ἐν γὰρ τίς ἀφίλοι*.—In v. 5. &c. Mr. W. follows Grotius, Excerpt. p. 706. We should prefer the reading and punctuation of Lennep. ad Phalarid. p. 213.

ἐγὼ μὲν οὖν καὶ αὐτὸς καθαριστρίας ἐρῶν,  
παῖδες κίρης, οὐ νοῦν ἔχω; πρὸς τῶν θεῶν  
κάλει κ. τ. λ.

V. 8. Mr. W. refers to our critique on the Hecuba, (Aug. 1799. p. 435.) and is attentive to our suggestions.

P. 32 & 106. Menander. Ἀρρητῶν. This fragment, omitted in great measure by Le Clerc, Bentley produced from Stephanus Byzantinus V. Δαδώνη. In the third verse, Mr. W. has given *τίς* as the emendation of Prof. Porson, forgetting to observe that it is so read in Montfaucon's Bibl. Coislin. p. 286. where this piece of the genuine Stephanus is given from a very old MS.—*Καταπίσσει*, in the fifth line, Bentley had corrected. P. 32 & 106. Idem. Δεισιδάμοι. From Porphyrius *de Abst.* IV. 15.—P. 33 & 107. Δυσκόλ. From Stob. XVI. p. 93.—P. 34 & 107. Δευκαλίων, from Strabo X. p. 452. ed. Paris. & Hesych. after Bentley Em. p. 38—45.—P. 35 & 107. Μισσην, from Stobæus, p. 285 & 455.—P. 36. Ὀργῆ from Athen. IV. p. 166. A.



P. 37. *Υποβολιμαίη*, Stobæus, p. 197. This fragment has considerable difficulties, which we endeavoured in some measure to remove in our Rev. for Aug. 1799, to which Mr. W. refers. The learned Cambridge Professor suggests a reading somewhat different from that which we had proposed.

V. 5. πῶρ. τὰντὰ, κᾶν ἐκατὸν ἴτη βίῃς ἴτι,  
ὄψει παρόντα.

V. 9. ————— ἢ ᾿πιδημίαν ἐν ᾗ  
ὄχλος.

V. 11. ἢν πρῶτ' ἀπέλθης καταλύσεις, βελτίονα  
ἐφ' ἡδὶ ἔχων ἀπωλθες, ἐχθρὸς οὐδενί.

P. 38. From Stobæus LXXII. p. 393. which ought to have been numbered 293. On the second verse, Mr. W. quotes *ὄναιμεθ' ἄν* from the *Acta Lips.* and then proposes *ὄναιμεθα*. We should rather correct *ὄναιμεθ' ἄν*.

P. 39 & 109. From Stobæus, p. 353 & 355. In Grotius, this fragment is ascribed to Epicharmus. Some MSS. assign it to Menander, as appears from the margin of Gesner's edition. We have before us, at present, only that which was published Tiguri 1559. The dialect alone, we think, is sufficient to decide the claim against the Syracusan Poet. In v. 6. Mr. W. approves Valckenær's emendation, *Diatr.* p. 150. *ὄνδεν δ' ἔχουσι πλείον, οὐδ' ἐρεῖς ὅτῃ.* '*Versus autem Philemonis, quos corrigere conatur, (Lud. Valck.) ita legendi:*

τί οὖν πλέον ποιούμεν; ἢ λύπη δ' ἔχει,  
ὥσπερ τὸ δένδρον τίντο καρπὸν, τὰ δάκρυα.

The editor might have stated that Valckenær's correction is founded on the readings of the Leyden MS. of Stobæus, as well as of the Venice edition by Trincavillus, *οὐδὲν ἔχουσι πλείον, οὐδ' ἐρεῖς ὅτῃ*. We agree with Mr. W. that Valckenær has not succeeded in restoring the second passage.—We have been accustomed to regard Mr. Upton's conjecture as ingenious, though defective, (on Shakespeare, p. 290.)

τί οὖν πλέον ποιούμεν; ἢ λύπη δ' ἔχει,  
ὥσπερ τὰ δένδρα τύντα καρπὸν, δάκρυα.

Thus ἢ λύπη is opposed to τὰ δένδρα, and καρπὸν to δάκρυα, without the article. We should have no objection to follow Stobæus, and read τὸ δένδρον τόντο.

P. 40 & 110. From Stobæus, p. 443.—P. 41 & 100. from Clemens Alexandrinus Strom. V. p. 605. and Euseb. Præp. p. 682.—P. 42 & 110. from Rutgersius Var. Lect. IV. p. 361. P. 43 & 110. Philemon, Athen. XIII. p. 569.

V. 8. τὰς γυναικας. Mr. W. surely had not read Bentley's note: "*Ita τας pro τι posuimus* inquit Grotius; *et recte sus-*  
*cinit*

cinit V. Cl. *Uterque fallitur : nam vere ed. Aldina habet τοι. Articulus hic non convenit.* We add that τοι is also preserved in the MSS.

V. 9. 'Vide Rutlium Lupum Lycurgo, ed. Rubnk. p. 60.' Mr. W.'s readers will be disappointed if they expect to find much illustration in the Roman Rhetorician here cited. To save them the trouble of recurring to a work which we believe is now become rather scarce, we extract the passage: "*Cujus omnes corporis partes ad nequitiam sunt appositissimi; oculi ad petulantem lasciviam, manus ad rapinam, venter ad aviditatem, [virilis natura] membra quæ non possumus honeste appellare, ad omne genus corruptela, pes ad fugam. Prorsus ut aut ex hoc vitia, aut ipse ex vitiis ortus videatur.*"

P. 44 & 111. Id. *Ephebo*. Stobæus, p. 405.—P. 45 & 112. *Pyrrho*, Stobæus, p. 210. and Brunck *Aristoph. Plut.* 985.

P. 46 & 112. From Stobæus, p. 133. V. 3. '*Pedem Dactylum ante finalem iambum in tetrametro trochaico admittunt Comici pudenter et raro. Hac Porsonus. Quicunque supplementum ad præfationem Heube perlegerit, hos versus in firmo talo incedere facile deprehendet.*

καὶ μικρὸν μὲν ἀρραβανά μ' ἵππισσι ἐνθὺς καταβαλῶν.

Bentl. Emen. n. 2476

καὶν τε ταῖσι ἐυφοραῖσι δυστυχεῖν μετὰ τῶν φίλων.

Valck. Diatr. p. 244.

The verse, as altered by Bentley, is faulty on other grounds besides those which Mr. W. has stated. The *ι* in μικρός, we believe, is never short; and the only instance which at present occurs to us is undoubtedly corrupt. Menand. Fr. ed. Cleric. p. 40. Σαπρὸς γὰρ ἦν, σὺ δὲ μικρολόγος δὲ θέλων:—where, from the vestiges of Clemens Alexandrinus and Theodoret, we would read σὺ δὲ μικρολόγος ὁ μὴ θέλων. The verse of Valckenaer does not come within the scope of the rule adduced by Mr. W. since it has an anapæst and not a dactyl immediately preceding the final iambus.

P. 47 & 113. From Stobæus, P. 453.—P. 48 & 113. From Stobæus, p. 395.—P. 49 & 113. From Stobæus, p. 61.

V. 8. *Plutarcho, auctore cum versus Æschyli (v. S. ad T. 594.) ad quos in hoc fragmento Menander [l. Philemon] respexit, in scena recitarentur, omnium spectatorum oculi in Aristidem conversi fuerunt. Vide Apoph. p. 186. ed. Franc. Quicunque autem hunc locum Menandri, necnon Plat. Polit. II. p. 423. Plut. Aristid. p. 310. Damascium apud Phot. p. 1031. consulat, minime dubitabit quin ita legendis sint versus Æschyli:*

Οὐ γὰρ δοκεῖν δίκαιος, ἀλλ' ἔναι θέλει,  
βαθεῖαν ἀλοκα διὰ φρενὲς καρπούμενος,  
ἀφ' ἧς τὰ κενὰ βλαστάνει βουλευμάτων.

ἀφ' ἧς habet Plutarchus in *Aprophthegmatibus*. Vide locum supra laudatum. Confer notam Ruhnkensii ad *Timæum*, p. 58.\*

From this slight reference, it would hardly be suspected that this whole note was nothing more than a mere transcript from that of Ruhnkensius, with which we shall present our readers, omitting only the citations which are there given at full length. “Βαθεῖαν ἀλοκα. Pertinet Glossa ad *Polit. II.* p. 423. *D. Æschyli locus est S. Theb. 599. ubi vide Schol. et Stanl. Eosdem lambos laudavit Plutarchus, Ari tid. p. 320. C. et T. II. p. 88. B. 186. B. expressit Damascius apud Phot. p. 1031. et p. 1055.*” Why does Mr. W. omit the reference to *Plut. II. p. 88. B.* where, as well as at p. 186. B. the vulgar reading *ἄριστος* is preserved? Cases should be stated fairly on both sides, in the court of criticism as well as in the courts of judicature. It seems, however, evident that *δίκαιος* is the proper reading; and the passage is so cited in the *Schol. to Plato, p. 149. ed. Ruhnck.* and in *Clemens Alexandrinus, Strom. I. p. 319, 21\**.

P. 49 & 114. From Mr. Porson's note ad *Eurip. Med. 139. P. 19. No. IX.—P. 50 & 115. Diphilus ἐμπύρην* from *Athen. VI. p. 227. F.*

We shall here conclude our remarks, with stating that the volume is printed on a very neat type, and with considerable elegance of execution. Small as it is, however, it might have been much compressed, since in more than one place we have only six lines in a page. Indeed, we discover evident marks of the modern practice of book-making throughout. We should add also that Mr. W. has given at the end the Latin metrical version of Grotius, as also the well known English imitations from Mr. Cumberland's *Observer*.

Two other publications by Mr. Walpole, intitled “*Specimens of scarce Translations of the 17th Century from the Latin Poets,*” and “*Isabel,*” &c. have appeared, and we shall take due notice of them at a future opportunity.

\* Prof. Porson has judiciously inserted *δίκαιος*, in the text; on which one *Fridericus Henricus Bothe*, who has made himself an editor of *Æschylus*, thus comments: “*Anglus Porsonus, nescio qua fretus auctoritate, edidit δίκαιος pro ἄριστος: sed illud baud dubie glossema est, ex versu 600 petiit.*” Of course, Bothe blunders on, and retains *ἄριστος*.—

ART. II. *The Life of George Washington, Commander in Chief of the American Forces during the War which established the Independence of his Country, and First President of the United States. Compiled under the Inspection of the Hon. Bushrod Washington, from original Papers bequeathed to him by his deceased Relative, &c. &c. By John Marshall, Chief Justice of the United States. Vol. III. (4to. 1l. 11s. 6d.) 8vo. pp. 572. 10s. 6d. Boards. R. Phillips, 1805.*

**P**ARTICULARS drawn from sources purely American, and details of circumstances which could be known only to the colonists themselves, occur more frequently in the present volume than in the preceding, and impart to it a superior interest. When the time, therefore, shall arrive, in which a complete and dispassionate account of the fatal struggle between Great Britain and her American dependencies can be framed, many of the materials here collected will prove highly valuable. Having already spoken of the general character of the work, it will not be expected that we should long detain our readers on the present occasion; and we may content ourselves with submitting to their view a few extracts, which will be illustrative of those traits which we regard as favourably distinguishing the narrative before us.

This volume embraces the history of three campaigns, those of 1776, 1777, and 1778; a very material part of the memorable contest which proved so humiliating to Great Britain. It nearly commences with the relief of Quebec by the Mother Country, and closes with the failure of the united attempts of the Americans and French against Rhode Island.

The feelings expressed in the following passage are so natural as to render the statement of the writer highly credible; and it is only a superior mind that can be expected to rise above them. On occasions of this kind, the conduct of the American commander uniformly appears to eminent advantage:

‘ General Gage, who had been appointed governor of Massachusetts, had received, in that station, all the irritations of which his mind was susceptible;—irritations which, as too frequently happens, seem to have been retained by him in his character of commander in chief of the British forces in America; and to have had no inconsiderable share of influence over his conduct in that capacity. He considered the Americans merely as rebels, and treated them as if the great national resistance they were now making on principle, was only to be considered as the act of a few daring and turbulent spirits, rising against laws of unquestionable obligation, who would soon be quelled, and punished for their disobedience to legitimate authority; and who would never possess, or would never dare to use, the means of retaliating the injuries inflicted on them. In this spirit, so well calculated to add to the calamities of war; and to increase the miseries of the human race, some distinguished characters in Boston

especially Mr. Lovel, and the American officers and soldiers who fell into his hands, were thrown into the common goal of felons, and treated, without respect to military rank or condition, not as prisoners of war, but as state criminals.

'This measure was remonstrated against by General Washington, who considering political opinion entirely out of the question, and "conceiving the obligations of humanity, and the claims of rank, to be universally binding, except in the case of retaliation, expressed the hope he had entertained, that they would have induced, on the part of the British General, a conduct more conformable to the rights they gave. While he claimed the benefit of these rights, he declared his determination to be regulated entirely in his conduct towards the prisoners who should fall into his hand, by the treatment which those in the power of the British should receive."

'To this letter a very haughty and intemperate answer was returned, in which complaints concerning the treatment of prisoners were retorted; and it was affected to be considered as an instance of clemency, that the cord was not applied to those whose imprisonment was complained of. To this answer, for which not even the then peculiar state of things can afford a palliative, General Washington gave a manly and dignified reply; which was, he said, "to close their correspondence, perhaps, for ever:" and which he concluded with saying, "If your officers, our prisoners, receive from me a treatment different from what I wished to shew them, they and you will remember the occasion of it."

A different system was pursued by General Howe; but we are concerned to observe that, frequently, in the course of the contest, a puerile and ineffectual resentment discovered itself, similar to that of General Gage.

The nature of the warfare, which decided the differences of the parties, may be judged by attentively reflecting on the subsequent sketch:

'Every day almost produced some skirmish, which increased the distress of the enemy, and the confidence of the Americans in themselves. The British found it totally unsafe to forage but with large covering parties, which were often attacked with advantage and their horses frequently taken. The miserable appearance they made evidenced the scarcity which prevailed in their camp. In these skirmishes prisoners were often made, and repeated small successes, the details of which filled the papers throughout America, served very much to animate the people at large, who even supposed, that so soon as the season would permit the armies to take the field, the British would be driven to their ships for protection. Yet the real situation of General Washington, which was happily concealed, in a great degree, both from the enemy and from his own countrymen, was extremely critical. He was often abandoned by bodies of the militia before their places were filled by others, and thus left in a state of dangerous weakness, exposed to have his positions forced by the enemy. This was not the only inconvenience resulting from this fluctuating army.

They

'They carried off arms and blankets, which had been unavoidably delivered to them, to be used while in camp, and thus wasted in advance the supplies collected for the use of the army now recruiting for the ensuing campaign.'

The author thus concludes his account of the campaign of 1776:

'The campaign, from the landing of the enemy at Elk ferry on the twenty-fifth of August, till they took possession of Philadelphia on the twenty sixth of September, had been extremely active, and the part to be performed by the American General uncommonly arduous. The best English writers who have detailed the events of the war, bestow high encomiums on Sir William Howe for the military skill displayed and the masterly movements made by him, during these operations. At Brandywine especially, Washington is supposed to have been 'out-Generaled, more out-Generaled than in any action during the war.' Yet let all the operations of this trying period be examined, and the means in possession of both be considered, and no apprehension need be entertained, that the American chief will appear in any respect inferior to his adversary, or unworthy of the high place he held in the opinions of his countrymen. With an army decidedly inferior, not only in numbers, but in every other military requisite, except courage, in an open country, in which not a single fortification was to be found, nor a river which was not, in that season of the year, fordable by infantry almost every where, he employed the enemy near thirty days in advancing about sixty miles. In this time he fought one general action, and, though defeated, was able to re-assemble the same undisciplined, unclothed, and almost unfed army; and on the fifth day after his defeat, again to offer battle to the conqueror. When the armies were separated by a storm of rain, which involved him in circumstances the most distressing which can be conceived, he extricated himself from them with infinite and persevering labour, and still maintained a respectable and imposing countenance.'

If other histories present us with more elaborate manœuvres, and more brilliant exploits, it is difficult to point out any accounts which exhibit proofs of firmness of mind and of perseverance, superiour to those which were displayed in the course of this struggle by the American General. If he had less to apprehend than some other chiefs, of whom we read, from the resources, the skill, and the enterprize of his opponents, he had a struggle to maintain which was far more difficult; he held his command under an ill formed and inexperienced government; he exercised it over an armed force which its faulty construction rendered it impossible to subject to discipline; and he was placed at the head of troops which underwent privations that have scarcely a parallel in human annals. Never, perhaps, did a country owe so much to one man, as North America owed to Washington. The army appears to have been kept together entirely by means of his con-

sels and his personal influence. The following passages abundantly confirm these observations :

‘ The situation of his army, and his own feelings, are thus stated in a letter to Governor Clinton of New York. “ It is with great reluctance I trouble you upon a subject which does not properly fall within your province ; but it is a subject which occasions me more distress than I have felt since the commencement of the war, and which loudly demands the most zealous exertions of every person of weight and authority, who is interested in the success of our affairs. I mean the present dreadful situation of the army for want of provisions, and the miserable prospect for the future. It is more alarming than you will probably conceive ; for to form a just idea, it were necessary to be on the spot. For some days past, there has been little less than a famine in camp. A part of the army has been a week without any kind of flesh, and the rest three or four days. Naked and starving as they are, we cannot enough admire the incomparable patience and fidelity of the soldiery, that they have not been ere this time excited by their sufferings to a general mutiny and dispersion. Strong symptoms however of discontent have appeared in particular instances, and nothing but the most active efforts every where can long avert so shocking a catastrophe.” —

‘ Happily for America there was in the character of Washington, something which enabled him, notwithstanding the discordant materials of which his army was composed, to attach both his officers and soldiers so strongly to his person, that no distress could weaken their affection, nor impair the respect and veneration in which he was held by them. To this sentiment is greatly to be attributed the preservation of a respectable military force, under circumstances but too well calculated for its dissolution.

‘ Through this severe experiment on their fortitude, the native Americans in general persevered steadily in the performance of their duty ; but the conduct of the Europeans in general, who constituted a considerable part of the army, was much less laudable ; and at no period of the war was desertion so frequent as during this winter. With the aid of those inhabitants who were friendly to the ancient government, they eluded the vigilance of the light parties who watched the roads, and great numbers escaped into Philadelphia with their arms. These were not the only recruits made by the British army in the course of the winter. The disaffected joined them in such numbers, as to add very sensibly to their strength.’ —

‘ At no period of the war had the American army been reduced to a situation of greater peril than during the winter at Valley-forge. It has been already stated that, more than once, they were absolutely without food. Even while their condition was less desperate in this respect, their stock of provisions was so scanty, that there was seldom at any time in the stores a quantity sufficient for the use of the troops for one week. Consequently, had the enemy moved out in force, the American army could not have continued in camp. The want of provisions would have forced them out of it ; and their deplorable condition with respect to clothes, disabled them from keeping the field in the winter. The returns of the first of February exhibit the  
astonishing

astounding number of three thousand nine hundred and eighty-nine men in camp unfit for duty for want of clothes: of this number scarcely a man had a pair of shoes. Even among those returned capable of doing duty, many were so badly clothed, that exposure to the colds of the season must have destroyed them. Although the total of the army exceeded seventeen thousand men, the present effective rank and file amounted to only five thousand and twelve. The returns throughout the winter do not essentially vary from that which has just been particularly stated.

While the sufferings of the soldiers, first during a winter campaign, and afterwards in what were termed winter quarters, filled the hospitals, a dreadful mortality still continued to prevail in those miserable receptacles of the sick, where death was often found by those who entered them in quest of health. The provision made for them, which was at best inadequate to their wants, was said to be misapplied. They were crowded in small apartments, and a violent putrid fever raged among them, which carried off much greater numbers than all the diseases of the camp.

If then, during the deep snows which covered the earth for a great part of the winter, the enemy had taken the field, their own sufferings must indeed have been great, but the American loss must have been infinitely greater. General Washington must either have fought them with inferior numbers, and have staked the safety of his army on the issue of that battle, or have retreated further into the country, a measure which could not possibly have been effected without the loss of many of his naked and barefooted soldiers.

Happily the real condition of his army was not well understood by Sir William Howe, and that officer had ever been extremely careful of the lives and comfort of his own troops. He had on no occasion manifested a disposition to hazard them without a clear advantage, and perhaps his conduct was, in general, wise and able, as well as cautious. In this particular instance, however, a winter expedition would have infinitely distressed and injured the American army. Fortunately, Sir William Howe confined his operations to those small excursions that were calculated to enlarge the comforts of his own army, which notwithstanding the good disposition of the neighbouring country, was much distressed for fuel, and often in great want of forage and fresh provisions. The vigilance used on the lines, especially on the south side of the Schuylkill, intercepted a great portion of the supplies designed for the Philadelphia market; and corporal punishment was not unfrequently inflicted on those who were detected in attempting this infraction of the laws.

Though this writer discovers a partiality in favour of his country, which we are far from censuring, we do not perceive that this bias ever leads him to error or misrepresentation. It appears that the animosities of the parties increased the hardships of the prisoners on each side; and the view given of that afflicting circumstance is creditable to the candid temper of the author:



' In the war between Great Britain and America, although neither Lord nor Sir William Howe appear, from their general conduct or sentiments, to have possessed that ferocity of temper, or that furious and bigoted zeal which could induce them to increase wantonly the miseries of the wretched, or to dispense, in the case of American prisoners, with an observance of the acknowledged rights of humanity; yet there were facts which seem authentic, and certainly the belief of them was universal in the United States, which justified the opinion that, at least some of the subordinate depositories of authority could bury all the milder feelings which belong to a man, and delight to increase the sufferings of those who were wretched and were in their power. On the other hand, some disposition was certainly discovered in several of the states, to discriminate the American loyalist who was deemed a traitor to his country, from the British soldier, when taken in arms.

' The sufferings occasioned by these dispositions were unfortunately protracted to an unusual length, by circumstances in which it is possible, that each party might suppose the whole blame to rest with his adversary.'

An equally liberal spirit marks the observations on the conduct of Sir William Howe :

' Great doubts have been entertained whether the plan on which this gentleman conducted the war was well chosen. Many are of opinion, that more vigour and enterprise on the part of the British General would have entirely dispersed the American army, and have terminated the contest.

' It is much easier to look back and condemn an unsuccessful system, than to select with discriminating judgment, before events shall have decided on their value, those measures which, under existing circumstances, are best adapted to the end proposed.

' The American army was certainly, more than once, very critically circumstanced. Its difficulties were at all times great, and its situation at some times extremely perilous. Sir William Howe might, on some occasions, have acted more efficiently, but in doing so, he would also have exposed himself to considerable loss and hazard. The effect of a single defeat might have been to raise the whole country in arms, and entirely to depress the friends of the royal cause. Such victories as that at Bunker's hill, or that claimed by Burgoyne on the 19th of September, would indeed have terminated the war, and terminated it by the ruin of his army.

' His system seems to have been to put nothing to hazard. Whenever he marched through the country, he preserved such compact order, as never to expose any part of his troops to a vigilant enemy, ready to strike where the occasion presented itself. He never fought without the fairest prospects of victory, and then relied much on stratagem to increase the advantage his numbers gave him, and diminish the loss with which even victory must be accompanied. By this circumspect, cautious system, he maintained to the last moment of his command, a superiority of military force.

• He probably supposed, that the extreme difficulties under which America laboured ; the failure of her funds by the regular and rapid depreciation of paper money ; the annual dispersion of her army by the expiration of the terms of their enlistment ; the uncommon privations to which every class of society was under the necessity of submitting, in consequence of the entire destruction of commerce, would of themselves create, in the public mind, a disposition to return to the ancient state of things, if the operation of these causes should not be counteracted by brilliant successes obtained over him, or the manifest inferiority of his army to that opposed to him.

• Experience has certainly demonstrated the fallacy of this reasoning ; but we have not the same evidence that an opposite course of conduct would have been more successful. A country situated like America is invincible, while the mind remains unsubdued.

• Whatever opinion may be entertained of the general plan by which Sir William was regulated, it must be admitted that its particular parts were executed with judgment ; and that, whenever he did act, a very considerable share of military skill was displayed. The officers he had commanded, testified, on his leaving the army, their sense of his services, by one of those splendid and triumphal processions which only an uninterrupted course of victory could be supposed to have occasioned.

While we applaud the candour and good sense of these remarks, we cannot withhold our opinion that, with an able administration in the mother country, and a General in the colonies who was at once a military genius and a politician, the American states could never have established their independence. To us the unhappy war appears to have been very much a struggle between imbecilities ; namely, that which was personal to the members of the British cabinet, and that which was natural to an infant state under an executive without authority.

Though the plan and execution of the work before us be liable to many objections, yet, on account of the useful matter which it embraces, we shall be glad to see it completed. In a literary view, its pretensions are not high : but, as exhibiting the motives of human transactions, and as exposing the causes of the success and failure of important political measures, it possesses no inconsiderable value.

ART. III. *Nathan the Wise*, a Dramatic Poem, written originally in German by G. E. Lessing. 8vo. pp. 293. 7s. 6d. Boards. Norwich, printed in 1791, and published in 1805 by R. Phillips, London.

**H**ow many attempts have been made to promote liberality and candour among religionists ; and all to how little purpose ! To the man who inculcates enlarged charity, the zealot

has no disposition to be charitable. He accuses him of denying his God, of betraying his faith, and of being a very atheist in practice, in as much as he must be indifferent to all religion;—and to whom can the accused apply for assistance under these heavy charges? No party is willing to espouse his cause, since he has been guilty of the atrocious offence of endeavouring to make discordant churches tolerate each other's differences, without suffering them to drive the benevolent affections from the heart. Such having been the usual fate of the preacher of mutual charity and forbearance, we cannot suppose that M. Lessing will on the present occasion be graciously received; who, in the work before us, has constructed a dramatic poem for the purpose of recommending mutual indulgence between religious sects. The *dramatis persone* consist of individuals belonging to the Jewish, the Mohammedan, and the Christian church; and the object of the writer is to shew that good men are to be found in each, and that good men, as such, in spite of the serious discrepancies of their faith, ought to respect and to be kind to each other. Saladin the muselman, a young Christian Templar, and Nathan, a Jew, are the principal personages. Nathan the Jew, however, shines pre-eminent in wisdom, liberality of mind, and goodness of heart: but his liberality will probably be suspected by many to be the very excess of that virtue. When Saladin the Sultan enjoins him to declare 'which law, which faith appears the better?' he evades a direct answer, by repeating the following tale:

'In days of yore, there dwelt in east a man,  
 who from a valued hand receiv'd a ring  
 of endless worth: the stone of it an opal,  
 that shot an ever-changing tint: moreover,  
 it had the hidden virtue him to render  
 of God and man belov'd, who in this view,  
 and this persuasion, wore it. Was it strange,  
 the eastern man ne'er drew it off his finger,  
 and studiously provided to secure it  
 for ever to his house. Thus—He bequeath'd it;  
 first, to the *most beloved* of his sons,  
 ordain'd that he again should leave the ring  
 to the *most dear* among his children—and  
 that without heeding birth, the *favourite* son,  
 in virtue of the ring alone, should always  
 remain the lord of the house—You year me, sultan?

'*SALADIN.* I understand thee—on.

'*NATHAN.* From son to son,  
 At length this ring descended to a father,  
 who had three sons, alike obedient to him;

whom

whom therefore he could not but love alike.  
 At times seem'd this, now that, at times the third,  
 (accordingly as each apart receiv'd  
 the overflowings of his heart) most worthy  
 to heir the ring, which with goodnatur'd weakness  
 he privately to each in turn had promis'd.  
 This went on for a while. But death approach'd,  
 and the good father grew embarrass'd. So  
 to disappoint two sons, who trust his promise,  
 he could not bear. What's to be done. He sends  
 in secret to a jeweller, of whom,  
 upon the model of the real ring,  
 he might bespeak two others, and commanded  
 to spare nor cost nor pains to make them like,  
 quite like the true one. This the artist manag'd.  
 The rings were brought, and e'en the father's eye  
 could not distinguish which had been the model.  
 Quite overjoy'd he summons [summonses] all his sons,  
 takes leaves of each apart, on each bestows  
 his blessing and his ring, and dies—Thou hearst me?

\* *SALADIN*. I hear, I hear, come finish with thy tale;  
 is it soon ended?

\* *NATHAN*. It is indeed, sultan,  
 for all that follows may be guess'd of course.  
 Scarce is the father dead, each with his ring  
 appears, and claims to be the lord o'th' house.  
 Comes question, strife, complaint—all to no end;  
 for the true ring could no more be distinguish'd  
 than now can—the true faith.

\* *SALADIN*. How, how, is that  
 to be the answer to my query?

\* *NATHAN*. No,  
 but it may serve as my apology:  
 if I can't venture to decide between  
 rings, which the father got expressly made,  
 that they might not be known from one another.

\* *SALADIN*. The rings—don't trifle with me; I must think  
 that the religions which I nam'd can be  
 distinguish'd, e'en to raiment, drink and food.

\* *NATHAN*. And only not as to their grounds of proof.  
 Are not all built alike on history,  
 traditional, or written. History  
 must be received on trust—is it not so?  
 In whom now are we likeliest to put trust?  
 In our own people surely, in those men  
 whose blood we are, in them, who from our childhood  
 have given us proofs of love, who ne'er deceiv'd us,  
 unless 'twere wholesomer to be deceiv'd.

How can I less believe in my forefathers  
than thou in thine. How can I ask of thee  
to own that thy forefathers falsified  
in order to yield mine the praise of truth.  
The like of christians.

‘*SALADIN*. By the living God  
the man is in the right, I must be silent.

‘*NATHAN*. Now let us to our rings return once more.  
As said, the sons complain’d. Each to the judge  
swore from his father’s hand immediately  
to have receiv’d the ring, as was the case ;  
after he’d long obtain’d the father’s promise,  
one day to have the ring, as also was.  
The father, each asserted, could to him  
not have been false, rather than so suspect  
of such a father, willing as he might be  
with charity to judge his brethren, he  
of treacherous forgery was bold to accuse them.

‘*SALADIN*. Well, and the judge, I’am eager now to hear  
what thou wilt make him say. Go on, go on.

‘*NATHAN*. The judge said, if ye summon not the father  
before my seat I cannot give a sentence.  
Am I to guess enigmas ? Or expect ye  
that the true ring should here unseal its lips ?  
But hold—you tell me that the real ring  
injoys the hidden power to make the wearer  
of God and man belov’d ; let that decide.  
Which of you do two brothers love the best ?  
You are silent. Do these love-exciting rings  
act inward only, not without ? Does each  
love but himself ? Ye’re all deceiv’d deceivers,  
none of your rings is true. The real ring  
perhaps is gone. To hide or to supply  
its loss, your father order’d three for one.

‘*SALADIN*. O charming, charming !

‘*NATHAN*. And (the judge continued)  
if you will take advice in lieu of sentence  
this is my counsel to you, to take up  
the matter where it stands. If each of you  
has had a ring presented by his father,  
let each believe his own the real ring.  
’Tis possible the father chose no longer  
to tolerate the one ring’s tyranny ;  
and certainly, as he much lov’d you all,  
and lov’d you all alike, it could not please him  
by favouring one to be of two th’ oppresser.  
Let each feel honour’d by this free affection  
unwarp’d of prejudice ; let each endeavour

to vie with both his brothers in displaying the virtue of his ring ; assist its might with gentleness, benevolence, forbearance, with inward resignation to the godhead, and if the virtues of the ring continue to show themselves among your childrens children, after a thousand thousand years, appear before this judgment-seat — a greater one than I shall sit upon it and decide. So spake the modest judge.'

Though we do not entirely subscribe to this representation, which places the evidences and excellencies of the three religions on a par, it is right to consider that these systems have several things in common ; that the Christian acknowledges his religion to be erected on Judaism ; that the Jew and the Christian agree in the divine authority of a great portion of the Bible ; and that the Mohammedan admits with the former the divine mission of Moses, and with the latter the divine mission of Christ. If, also, less reason exists than is commonly supposed for Jews, Turks, and Christians to cherish violent antipathies on account of varieties of opinion, surely, among the different sects of the same religion, mutual indulgence is an imperious duty. To resolve to love virtue wherever we find it, and to do good without suffering our creed to draw a narrow line around our hearts, is the best proof that we can give of our minds being imbued with the essence of religion. Several parts of the dialogue impress this sentiment. E. G.

*Recha*, the adopted daughter of Nathan, is made to say

'—Our devotion to the God of all depends not on our notions about God.'

A Friar, who is one of the characters of this piece, when he discovers the benevolence of Nathan's heart, exclaims

'Nathan you are a christian ! Yes, by God, you are a christian, never was a better.'

to which Nathan replies,

'Heaven bless us—what makes me to you a christian makes you to me a jew. ———'

It is unnecessary to detail the particulars of the plot, the scene of which is in Jerusalem. It is drawn out to an immoderate length, and has all the improbabilities which are so common in German fictions : but occasionally some fine passages present themselves, and the sentiments are generally laudable. The language of the translation is often tame, and abounds with low expressions and unauthorized words :

'out and in  
'tis a long *hundred* leagues to Babylon,'—

'go, see what she's after'—

'You are on the bite'—

'From Egypt may-be nothing

will come this long time.'—

'He gives—as nobly to jew, christian,  
mahometan, or parsee—*'tis all one.*'—

'And have I not too said so, times and oft.'

'Find up' repeatedly occurs for *find out*; and we meet with  
the words *enthusiasms, unguilty, unthinkable, &c.*

Had the translator curtailed this play, it would probably  
have been more acceptable.

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ART. IV. *The Institutions of the Practice of Medicine.* Delivered  
in a Course of Lectures, by Jo. Baptist Burserius, of Kanifeld.  
Translated from the Latin by William Cullen Brown. Vols. III.  
IV. and V. 8vo. 11. ss. Boards. Creech, &c. Edinburgh;  
Cadell and Davies, London.

As we have already characterized the first two volumes of  
this translation\*, we have now to announce the com-  
pletion of the work, without much addition to our opinion of  
its general merits. It must certainly be regarded as a valuable  
body of medical science, displaying in a striking manner the  
industry and learning of the author: but we must confess that  
it has altogether the air of a compilation, and possesses the  
usual defects of such performances. More pains appear to  
have been taken in the accumulation than in the selection of  
materials; and writers of various degrees of respectability, and  
intituled to different portions of credit, are quoted with equal  
confidence and authority.

A considerable part of the Professor's labours has been  
directed to collecting the opinions that have been entertained  
on certain topics, and the hypotheses deduced from them;  
the greatest number of which, though supported by the most  
celebrated names, are now so entirely superseded as scarcely to  
excite even an emotion of curiosity. In this country more  
especially, where the influence of theory over the understand-  
ing is rapidly declining, we are apt to view such discussions  
with perfect indifference; and to regard all time as mis-  
spent, which is not employed in observing the phænomena of  
disease, and the effects of remedies when applied to them.  
Reflecting on the very slender foundation on which the most

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\* See Rev. Vols. xxxvi. and xxxix.

favourite positions of the older physiologists were erected, we do not hesitate to give our decided preference to the method pursued by the moderns ; which we conceive to be consonant to the true spirit of philosophy, and highly favourable to the improvement of medical science. To whatever cause we may be inclined to ascribe it, the fact we believe is undoubted, that the British physicians are much less under the bondage of hypotheses than their continental brethren ; with whom not only the imposing doctrines of the Brunonian school, which in this island have few professed adherents, but the more antiquated opinions of the humoral pathology, continue to influence both reasoning and practice. This last appears to have been the hypothesis which had the most powerful sway over the mind of Burserius ; for though he possessed too much candor and discernment to be bigotedly devoted to any one system in its fullest extent, he exhibits an evident attachment to the Boerhaavian doctrines.

In one respect, this author differs from most systematic writers, viz. in his dislike of nosological arrangement ; a sentiment in which we are almost inclined to acquiesce. It must be acknowledged that even the classification of Cullen presents us with little that can direct either our pathology or our practice. With what propriety can ophthalmia be considered as a general, and ischuria as a local complaint ? What connection or resemblance, in cause, symptoms, or treatment, have his order of spasmi, and his whole class of cachexiæ ? What diseases can require a more opposite treatment, or depend on causes more dissimilar, than the different kinds of cynanche, which are considered as only species of the same genus ? Such an arrangement, if it produce any effect, must pervert the judgment of the practitioner.

Having in the two former volumes discussed the different kinds of fevers, and a part of what are usually called the exanthemata, in the third volume M. Burserius treats of the remaining diseases of this class. The most important of them, the small-pox, occupies a principal share of attention ; every circumstance concerning it is discussed with the utmost minuteness ; and information is brought together from every quarter, respecting the symptoms and the method of cure. In detailing the history of the disease, the author is much indebted to our countrymen, Sydenham and Morton ; and by his frequent reference to their writings, he pays them that unequivocal tribute of applause to which they are so justly entitled. The question which has been lately so much agitated, relative to the power of the vaccine disease in securing the body against the subsequent infection of small-pox, has led  
practitioners



practitioners to examine with much assiduity how far it is possible for the same individual to be attacked more than once with this latter disease. We shall copy the remarks of M. Burserius on the subject, which may be considered as the more valuable, because he cannot be suspected of any undue bias :

‘ They also entertain an erroneous opinion who think, that, after once having the genuine small-pox, the disposition of the body to receive them is destroyed. For it appears from undoubted facts, and the investigations of medical men of unquestionable authority, that not a few, after experiencing the complaint in the natural way, or by inoculation, have afterwards been affected a second, and even a third time. Hence it is evident, that that disposition is not always destroyed after once having had the disease, or, at least, that it may be sometimes excited again.’

The Professor quotes instances of this occurrence from some of the older writers, and then observes :

‘ But, for the sake of brevity, passing over the numerous testimonies of foreigners, I shall only touch upon a few of those of the Italian physicians, that I may not seem to lose sight of such as are afforded by our own writers. It is not an uncommon thing in Naples, as we are informed by Sarcon\* and Moscat†, for the same person to be attacked twice or thrice with small-pox, and of the confluent kind. In Florence the same observation holds. Targionit‡, in the year 1775, saw a woman twice attacked with small-pox in the natural way; and in the following year he published another account of the return of small-pox. Dojn. Juvanelli attended three sisters affected with small-pox at the same time, who on a former occasion§ had laboured under the genuine complaint, as it was acknowledged to be by the physicians who attended them. In like manner, Lilius, in order to establish the fact¶, published two complete histories of the return of small-pox in the year 1777. I find nearly the same opinion entertained by the ingenious Azzoguidi¶, professor of medicine at Bologna, who, not contented with having mentioned two instances of the return of the complaint, adduces the case of an old woman, who as we are informed by Borelli\*\*, at the age of 118 died of the eighth attack of small-pox. Lastly, to crown the whole, he mentions the case of Lewis XV. who, after experiencing the complaint at the age of fourteen, was afterwards attacked with it at sixty-four years of age. I might confirm the fact by the published observations of Michael Girard, then residing in Paduat††, as well as by other testimonies, were I not restrained by a great controversy which shortly after arose concerning them††.’

\* *Istor. de' Mali Osservati in Napoli*, P. I. p. 58. † *Dissert. 2. sull' aria*, p. 106. ‡ *Avis. sopra la Salut. Uman.* 1775, N. 17. § *Avis. sopra la Salut. Uman.* an 1776, N. 9. p. 71. N. 10. p. 79. ¶ *Avis Suddett.* an 1777, p. 167. et 1778, N. 36. p. 281. ¶ *Lettera sopra il Vajuolo &c.* p. 7. \*\* *Cent. 3. obs. 10.* †† *Ritorno del Vajuolo, &c.* 1776. †† *Giornale di Medic. di P. Orteschi, T. iv.*

If we should be obliged to admit that the natural small-pox has, in some cases, occurred more than once to the same person, we cannot consider it as any real objection to the vaccine inoculation, that in some instances, equally rare, it should not have preserved the patient against small-pox.

Falling into the usual error of systematic writers, this author rather perplexes than illustrates the subject, by the number of species into which he divides and subdivides the disease. Not contented with the varieties of distinct and confluent, he introduces a class of malignant distinct, and one of mild confluent; and he divides the malignant confluent into the erysipelatous, morbillous, coherent, sanguineous, and crystalline. He indeed appears to consider every different degree of violence, and every peculiarity of symptoms, as sufficient ground for forming a distinct variety.

In treating of the cure, we have long discussions respecting the application of cold, and the employment of bleeding, purging, and the warm bath. The author presents us with an ample view of all that has been advanced on the subject: but we confess that the multiplicity of opinions, often contradictory and irreconcilable, rather afford matter of reflection to the medical historian, than any guide or direction to the practitioner. The same remarks apply with more force to the remedies that are prescribed; among a farrago of substances, often disgusting or inert, we perhaps meet with one ingredient of acknowledged efficacy, as for instance opium or bark: but, from the indiscriminate manner in which they are all recommended, it does not appear that the author had been in the habit of attending to their respective merits. The simplicity of the prescriptions employed by the British physicians we consider as the most decisive proof of their superior medical science. Who in this country would venture to advise, after the example of the learned Professor, the '*aqua spermatis rammarum*' as a fomentation to the eyes in small-pox?

After having gone through the exanthemata, M. Burserius professes to discard any farther attention to nosological arrangement, and proceeds with classing diseases according as they affect particular parts of the body; beginning with those of the head, which occupy the 4th volume. In this part of the work, are included those affections of the nervous system which are unattended with any visible change of structure, as delirium and convulsion; those which are produced by an obvious derangement of the brain or its appendages, as hydrocephalus; and those complaints which affect particular parts of the head, and originate from accidental causes, not accompanied with any particular condition of the nerves, as ophthalmia and epistaxis.

With

seems to afford us more effectual assistance than the Parallelisms, of which Dr. Lowth reckons three sorts, viz. synonymous, antithetic, and synthetic, or constructive; and which Dr. Stock calls the great ornament of Hebrew poetry. By these aids, the length of the line is ascertained, and true readings are often suggested; and so far it may be useful in the elucidation of the sacred text, to exhibit these parallelisms metrically arranged. In delivering instruction, and inculcating serious truths on the mind, the reduplication or echoing of the same sentiment is no doubt very impressive: but how far this tautology is a poetical beauty will be differently judged. It is sufficient for the present to observe that in the Hebrew text a march of syllables is discoverable, which is adapted to chaunting or to recitative; and in this mode, portions of scripture were repeated to the congregations of Israel: but we hesitate to subscribe to the Bishop of Killalla's position that the whole of the O. T., including even the historical books, displays a metrical arrangement, or, in other words, is composed in verse. As, however, the conversion of limited into universal propositions is no unusual occurrence, and as this learned prelate modestly declines all controversy on a question which is confessedly of difficult solution, we shall not here contest the point; and we are persuaded that, on a reconsideration of the subject, he will not be partial to an hypothesis which represents certain compositions to be poetical, when from their nature they have been generally regarded as prose, and are found to 'want the ornaments and bolder features of poetry.'

Too much praise cannot be conferred on those dignified clergy who devote their leisure to the critical study of the scriptures, and consecrate their classical learning by employing it in the line of their profession. Such works as that which is now before us are creditable indeed to the age in which they appear, as well as to the individual authors; who thus set an example which we trust will be followed. If different learned clergymen were each to take a separate book of the Hebrew Scriptures, and to publish it as a classic, with a translation, various readings, notes, and illustrations of the text, (abstaining in the first instance from all doctrinal discussion and mystical allusion,) much would then be done towards establishing the basis of theological knowledge, without which the erection of theories must be vague and unstable. In undertakings of this sort, we should not object to have, as Dr. Stock recommends, the lines of every book distinguished according to the Masoretic circumscription; though we do not regard the Masoretic accents and pauses as indicative of the poetical nature of the composition, but as having been inserted in the sacred  
text

text for the purpose of directing those who were to recite or chaunt it in the public service, in the modulation of their voice.

The R. R. writer premises that, having been driven from the active duties of his station by the late troubles in Ireland, and compelled for the space of four years to give up his 'see-house' to the accommodation of his Majesty's troops at Killalla, he employed a considerable part of this interval in renewing his acquaintance with the Hebrew Scriptures; to which pursuit he had been repeatedly urged by his respected friend and brother-in-law, Archbishop Newcome, whose advice, after his decease, operated with redoubled energy. In the course of one year, the Bishop tells us, he had perused the greater part of the O. T. in Hebrew; and his ear became so much accustomed to a certain rhythm or metre, seeming to pervade the volume, that he rested in the conviction that the whole was poetical, and that the verses throughout all the books consisted, in general, of what Bishop Lowth distinguishes by the appellation of *tetrameters*. Under this persuasion, we are also informed, he conceived a wish to see how the first of prophets, Isaiah, would appear in his proper dress of a poet.—As this work, however, had in a great measure been executed before, and as that part of Dr. Stock's general assertion which respected the poetical nature of the historical books would be most open to controversy, we think that he should have employed himself on Genesis, Judges, or Samuel, in preference to Isaiah\*: but we must rest contented, at least for the present, with what he has given us, and without farther preface shall proceed to an examination of his undertaking. The principle, on which the metrical arrangement is conducted, is thus explained by the learned critic:

\* The manner of chanting the Psalms in our cathedrals, which has flowed without interruption into the Christian church from the Jewish, affords, in my apprehension, the easiest and clearest answer to the question, What is Hebrew metre? The Psalms, we know, are divided into verses; verses into two parts, responsively sung by the choir; and of these parts each is distributed into musical bars of the length of four crotchets, which is called *common time*. All words in,

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\* Certain parts of Isaiah are considered by Dr. Lowth as prose, and are thus exhibited, but these are all metrically arranged in the volume before us. Even the general title is printed as verse; and the note at chap. xiv 28. "In the year in which king Ahaz died was this oracle delivered," is printed in two rhythmical lines,

' In the year that king Ahaz died,  
Was this oracle given.'

See also the beginning of chap. xxxviii., the 9th verse of that chapter; and other instances.

cluded

cluded within the same bar, be they many or few, are pronounced by the choir in the same time; the many rapidly, the few by a lengthened utterance, without regard to quantity, or the importance of the respective words in the sentence. Bars of this description measure the length of the Hebrew verses, at least of far the greater part of them, for the exceptions shall be mentioned presently; so that to the four crotchets in the bar the ear discerns four rests, or feet, corresponding in the verse, and the measure becomes exactly similar to that of our English verses of eight syllables, as in the Hundredth Psalm,

*'With one consent let all the earth*

*To GOD their cheerful voices raise, &c.*

The exceptions to this general rule are, that sometimes in a stanza a line of the common length is succeeded by one of three feet, or six syllables, as in Lam. ch. iii. throughout:\*

אֲנִי הַנִּבֵּר רָאָה עֵינִי  
בְּשִׁבְטֵי עֲבָדָיו :  
אוֹתִי נָהַג נִלְךְ  
&c. חֹשֶׁךְ וְלֹא אֹר : &c.

and frequently a stanza is made to begin or end with a hemistich, instead of a whole line, of which the very first line of David's Psalms presents an example,

אֲשֶׁר־יֵהְיֶה  
אֲשֶׁר לֹא הָלַךְ בְּעֵצַת רַשָּׁעִים

and Isaiah has many verses beginning with

וַיֹּאמֶר אֱלֹהִים יְבוֹס הָהוּא

&c. and others ending with נֶאֱמַר יְהוָה and the like.†

Being satisfied respecting this point, the Bishop of Killalla prescribed to himself the laborious task of transcribing the Hebrew original, with the view of adjusting to each line of the text Dr. Lowth's celebrated version; 'corrected where it should appear necessary, either by the later discoveries of the excellent German critic and translator *Rosenmüller*, or by his own observations.' Here, however, a new duty devolved on

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\* Bishop Lowth, because this chapter is composed in acrostics, takes it for an infallible position, that every line begins with a separate letter of the alphabet, and therefore that what I set down as *two verses* constitutes only *one*. I think not, and I have the Masoretes on my side: the different letters mark the commencement of a new stanza, not of a new line.

† This statement respecting the evidence of the Masoretes is not to the point. The Masoretic accents note the pauses in reading, but not always the end of a line. Bp. Lowth's position is therefore not invalidated. Rev.

him; for the corrections which suggested themselves became so numerous, that 'at length almost a new translation arose.' Independently, therefore, of the adjustment of rhythm, we are called to consider the meaning of the sacred poet and prophet, and to compare the new version with that with which it is professedly contrasted. Dr. S. indeed, differs in such a multitude of instances from the late Bishop of London, that it will be impossible for us to collate all the passages: but we hope that those which we shall notice will be sufficient for the purpose of a review of the work under consideration. It must be remarked that Dr. Stock has 'arranged the English words in the same order in which the corresponding words are collocated in the Hebrew;' rightly conceiving that beauty and strength result from such a practice.

Is. i. 6. The common version and Lowth read here "bruise and *putrifying* sore:" but Dr. S. has translated it '*running* sore,' which is a more correct rendering of טרף *recens*, fresh.

17. '*help forwards the aggrieved*,' is preferable to Lowth's "amend that which is corrupted:" but would not *help the oppressed* have been better than either?

25. *Tin* of the old version is substituted for Lowth's "*alloy*," which, the present translator observes in a note, 'should not be *taken away*, being of use to render metals durable; but *tin*, which of all metals is most hurtful to silver.'

Ch. II. 1. In this place רַבֵּר is rendered *matter*, and in others *thing*\*: but surely the usual phrase, "the *word* which Isaiah received," is altered for the worse to 'the *matter* which Isaiah received;' and though Dr. S. follows Dr. L. in rendering chap. xiii. ver. 1. and in other places מִשָּׁה *oracle*, we shall protest against this heathenish though classical word. The old term *burthen* is more eligible; and if another be chosen, we should recommend one to be employed which shall conform to the strict sense of the original. Might it not have been translated *the judgment or denunciation on Babylon*, i. e. the divine sentence which it was to *bear* or *suffer*? The substitution of '*coulter*' for "*ploughshare*," chap. ii. 4. is an alteration of no great moment, though perhaps an improvement. The new reading in chap. ii. 22. last clause, 'for wherein is he to be accounted for?' scarcely suggests a meaning; and Dr. S. had better have followed Dr. Lowth, "for of what account is he to be made?"

Chap. III. 3. Dr. L. translates "The counsellor and the skilful artist and the *powerful in persuasion*:" but Dr. S. sub-

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\* Chap. IX. 8. 'The Lord is sending a *thing* upon Jacob.' What an awkward phrase!

stitutes for the last clause, '*the expert dealer in charms,*' and quotes Parkhurst in support of this alteration: who observes that שרר is to *whisper* or *mutter* certain words by which jugglers pretend to charm noxious creatures, and to deprive them of their power of healing. In justification of Lowth, who follows Montanus and Calassio in translating the word in this place *eloquii peritum*, we may remark that it is not very easy to suppose that Jehovah would threaten, as a judgment on the land, the removal of those who dealt in charms. These mutterers and jugglers could be of no use to a state.

Ch. V. 2. Lowth's "vine of Sorek" is altered to 'the choicest vine,' and his "poisonous berries" to 'nightshade berries.' To the first of these phrases, the following short note is subjoined:

'*The vine of Sorek*] *The grape of Burgundy*, we should say in Europe. Sorek was a valley lying between Ascalon and Gaza, and running far up eastward into the tribe of Judah. It was famous for its generous wines, and probably took its appellation from the *golden* or *sawny* colour of the wine, which the word שרר implies.'

Chap. VII. 2. 'Syria is *arm in arm* with Ephraim,' we think, is inferior to Dr. Lowth's "Syria is supported by Ephraim." If an alteration is to be made, why not preserve the exact meaning of שרר, and read, Syria *resteth* or *leaneth* on Ephraim?

Chap. VIII. 1. For "take a *large mirror*," the reading of Lowth's version, Dr. S. has judiciously substituted, '*take a large roll*;' observing that 'the word is derived from גל or גלל *a roll*, alluding to the well known form of ancient volumes.'

Chap. X. 13. Lowth renders—"And I have brought down those that were strongly seated:" but Dr. S. translates—"And I have let fall the curtain of the inhabitants;" subjoining this explanation:

'*Let fall the curtain*] The metaphor here employed appears to me to have escaped the commentators, by their not knowing the meaning of the word כנר, which is well explained by Parkhurst to denote a mosquito-net, or curtain, used in hot countries by people of the better sort, to guard them at night from the noise and stings of those very troublesome insects, the gnats. It is a thin curtain of gauze or goat's hair let down from the tester of the bed, inclosing it on every side, and thereby completely concealing the person in bed from view. The Italians call it *zinzariere*, from the noisy insect *zinzara*, as by the Greeks it was termed *κνιστήριον*, from κνιστή. To *let fall the curtain of the inhabitants*, therefore, is to hide them from view, to put them out of sight by destroying them.'

'This note, however, is to be applauded for its ingenuity rather than for the light which it throws on the passage כנר ישיבים  
are,

are, we think, better rendered by Dr. Lowth. The LXX seem to have included the meaning of the two concluding members of the verse, in the words *καὶ τὴν ἰσχὺν αὐτῶν παρορμήσουσιν*.

— v. 15. latter clause, Dr. S. translates

‘As if the rod should wield its lifter

As if the staff should lift up *what is not wood.*’

For *what is not wood*, Lowth substitutes “*its master* ;” observing that he has given the meaning without attempting to keep to the expression of the original ; and had Dr. S. followed him, the parallelism would have been more complete in his version.

Why כְּבוֹד should be translated *wealth* in v. 16. and *glory* in v. 18. we do not understand.

At v. 22. we have a specimen of the *ignotum per ignotius*. Dr. Lowth thus renders the last clause :

“The consummation decided overfloweth with strict justice.”

Not satisfied with this line, Bishop Stock attempts to improve it, but he is even less luminous than his predecessor :

‘Their fixed completion taketh its round in righteousness.’

The Bishop of London confesses it to be an obscure passage, and neither of the antient versions helps to elucidate it.

The concluding line of v. 27. is, according to Lowth,

“And the yoke shall perish from off thy shoulders.”

In Montanus, we read, *Et corrumpetur jugum a faciebus olei*, which is made intelligible by Dr. Stock’s translation, and note,

‘And the yoke shall be tied up from touching the unguent.’

‘That is, it shall be hindered from pressing on the healing-plaister applied to the galling of the neck, and called here the *unguent*, because in the East oil is generally used for the healing of wounds.’

In chap. XI. 3. Dr. L.’s reading “And he shall be of *quick discernment* in the fear of Jehovah”—is preferable to that of Dr. S.—‘And his delight shall be,’ &c. because it renders the parallelism more perfect : but the succeeding verse, according to Dr. S.—‘And with equity shall he give sentence,’ is superior to that of Dr. L.—“And with equity shall he work conviction.”

The translation of the last line of v. 9.

‘As the waters cast a cover on the sea,’

is a mode of expression scarcely authorized. We may say the same of the version of part of chap. xiv. 2.

‘And they shall be captors of those who *captivated* them.’

To *captivate* is not now employed in this sense ; and Dr. S.



should have suffered his predecessor's translation to have remained ;—" And they shall take them captive, whose captives they were."

— v. 4. last line, Lowth renders

" Hbw hath the oppressor ceased ! the exactress of gold ceased !"

by which the echo or repetition of the thought is complete ; and it agrees with the LXX, where the same parallelism is preserved : Πῶς ἀναπίπτουσι οἱ ἀπαιτῶν, καὶ ἀναπίπτουσι οἱ ἐπισπουδαίης. Dr. S., however, chooses to render the passage

" How hath the oppressor ceased ! the golden city ceased !"

adopting the idea of Parkhurst in his Lxxicon, (see דהב) though he is not quoted, that מדרבה, being a Chaldee word, is probably the epithet by which the Babylonians distinguished their superb and opulent capital, and corresponds with the *Κεχρυσωμένη χρυσῷ* in Rev. xvii. 4. and xviii. 16. Bp. Stock contends that it was not a name of reproach, which seems implied in Bp. Lowth's version : but to this remark it is obvious to reply that, as the phrase in question immediately follows *How hath the oppressor ceased !* it certainly could not be designed to include a compliment. The word being Chaldee, and also an *ἑπὶ λέγομενον*, it is not easy to determine its exact meaning in this place. Montanus and Calassio render it *pensio aurea*; and Buxtorf, *auri cupida*.

The present article would be extended to an immoderate length, were we in this manner to notice the dissonances which appear in every chapter between the two versions ; we must therefore rapidly pass over a great part of the work, though we do not intend immediately to dismiss it.

On the *Dial of Abaz*, mentioned chap. xxxviii. 5. : a curious note is given, accompanied with a wood engraving. We shall copy the note, which will be intelligible without the print :

' V. 8. *The dial of Abaz*] Heb. *the steps of Abaz*. The researches of curious travellers in Hindostan have lately discovered in that country three Observatories of similar form, the most remarkable of which is to be seen within four miles of Delhi, the ancient capital of the Mogul empire. To the politeness of Thomas Daniel, esq; R. A. I am indebted for the annexed sketch of this observatory, copied from an excellent painting in oil, made by that ingenious gentleman on the spot, and now offered for sale at his house in London. The reader acquainted with astronomy will see immediately, how such a building must answer the double purpose of an observatory and a dial. A rectangled triangle, whose hypothenuse is a staircase (apparently parallel to the axis of the earth) bisects a zone, or coping of a wall, which wall-connects the two terminating towers at right and left. The coping itself is of a circular form, and accurately graduated, to mark, by the shadow of the gnomon above, the sun's progress before and after noon ; for when the sun is in the zenith, he shines directly on the staircase, and the shadow falls beyond the coping

coping. A flat surface on the top of the triangle, and a gnomon, fitted the building for the purposes of an observatory.

'According to the known law of refraction, a cloud or body of air, of different density from the common atmosphere, interposed between the gnomon and the coping or dial plate below, in the manner supposed in the next note, would, if the cloud were denser than the atmosphere, cause the shadow to recede from the perpendicular height of the staircase, and of course to re-ascend the steps on the coping by which it had before noon gone down; and if the cloud were rarer, a contrary event would take place. This suggests the manner in which the shadow might be made to go either back or forward, agreeably to the option proposed by Isaiah to Hezekiah, 2 Kings xx. 9.

'That the miracle did not consist in a reversing of the earth's diurnal rotation, but was restrained יְרֵאָה, to the land of Judea merely, is plain from 2 Chron. xxxii. 31. Neither is the importance of the sign itself, as an evidence of the Divine power and veracity, in any degree diminished by the suggestion, that the effect might in part be produced by natural means; for the wonder still remains, that a cloud of a particular nature should be brought forward at a place and time previously announced.'

How far this explanation will prove satisfactory, we undertake not to pronounce.

In chap. xl. the only one which we shall farther notice, the Bishop objects to Lowth's insertion at v. 2. of *blessings* instead of *penalties*. V. 4. "The crooked shall be made strait," is altered into 'The projections shall be levelled.' V. 11. "Nursing ewes" into 'teeming ewes.' V. 12. *tierce* into *bushel* \*. V. 17. "Less than nothing and vanity" into 'A blank and a waste.' V. 27. "Thin veil" into 'awning,' and v. 31. "They shall put forth fresh feathers like the moulting eagle" into 'They shall tower on the wing like eagles.' 'He that must be scant in oblation', and 'to settle a graven image,' expressions employed by Dr. S. at v. 20. are scarcely English.

The alteration at v. 19. requires a little more attention. Dr. Lowth, following the common version, renders the last clause, "And forgoeth for it *chains* of silver." In the translation before us, we read—'And *plates* of silver he forgoeth for it.' No mention is made of either *silver* plates or chains in the LXX, and the intention both of the one and of the other we are left to conjecture. The passage 1 Kings vi. 21., where the same word occurs, should, according to Parkhurst, be translated, "He did over the fore-front with swaths, or sheets of gold:" but

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\* This alteration appears to us to be made without reason. שליש signifies the third part of a certain measure, and, as Parkhurst thinks, of the Bath, and to be equal to something more than 2½ gallons English.

if, in this text of Isaiah, דְּתַקִּיחַ be rendered *sheets* or *plates*, the reader will naturally wish to know what end could be obtained by placing sheets of silver on a golden image? Dr. Geddes, in his new translation, preserves the *chains of gold* in preference to *plates*, in the above recited passage in the book of Kings: but, if we decide in favour of *chains*, it will be asked, for what purpose were chains employed about a golden idol? Pole, in his Synopsis, answers that chains were used on this occasion either for the sake of ornament, or to fasten the image to the wall. We are not satisfied with the explanation.

Though the Bishop of Killalla will perceive that we have paid some attention to his learned publication, he may possibly complain that we have reviewed him *scrapatim*, anglicè by scraps; if we do not suffer him *en gros* to speak for himself. To obviate this objection, we shall now transcribe an entire passage, contrasted with the corresponding verses in Dr. Lowth's volume; and, as a proof that, in the midst of Greek and Hebrew, we have not forgotten the fair sex, we shall copy that part of the third chapter which describes the dress and ornaments of the fashionable ladies among the Hebrews in the time of the prophet Isaiah.

Dr. Lowth's version.

Is. Chap. III. 16—24.

- 16 "Moreover Jehovah hath said  
Because the daughters of Sion are haughty;  
And walk displaying the neck,  
And falsely setting off their eyes with paint;  
Mincing their steps as they go,  
And with their feet lightly tripping along.
- 17 Therefore will the Lord humble the head of the daughters of Sion  
And JEHOVAH will expose their nakedness.
- 18 In that day will the Lord take from them the ornaments,  
Of the feet-rings, and the net-works, and the crescents;
- 19 The pendants, and the bracelets, and the thin veils;
- 20 The tirts, and the fetters, and the zones,  
And the perfume-boxes and the amulets;
- 21 The rings, and the jewels of the nostril;
- 22 The embroidered robes, and the tunics;  
The cloaks, and the little purses;
- 23 The transparent garments, and the fine linen vests;  
And the turbans and the mantles:
- 24 And there shall be, instead of perfume, a putrid ulcer;  
And, instead of well-girt raiment, rags;  
And, instead of high-dressed hair, baldness;  
And, instead of a zone, a girdle of sackcloth;  
A sun-burnt skin instead of beauty."

Dr. Stock renders the same passage in the following manner, and professes to have taken great pains (as the notes will evince) in explaining each article of the wardrobe and toilette of the Hebrew females.

- 16 Moreover Jehovah hath said :  
 Because the daughters of Zion are conceited,  
 And walk thrusting out the neck,  
 And leering with their eyes,  
 With measured and mincing steps move along,  
 And on their feet tinkle the rings :  
 17 Therefore will the Lord smite with a scab the head of the  
 daughters of Zion,  
 and Jehovah will uncover their nakedness.  
 18 In that day  
 The Lord will take away the ornament of the ankle-rings,  
 And the brodered kerchiefs, and the crescents,  
 19 The drops, and the clasps, and the veils,  
 20 The tiaras, and the fetters, and the zones,  
 And the perfume-boxes, and the amulets,  
 21 The rings, and the jewels of the nostril,  
 22 The pellices, and the mufflers,  
 And the plaids, and the sabels,  
 23 The transparent vests, and the shifts,  
 And the turbans, and the shawls.  
 24 And it shall come to pass, that instead of perfume shall be a  
 stench,  
 And instead of a girdle a gathering,  
 And instead of a powdered head baldness,  
 And instead of a scarf a belt of sackcloth,  
 Scorching instead of beauty.'

' v. 18. *Ankle-rings*] Great labour has the following explication of the wardrobe of a Hebrew lady cost the commentators. Schroederus, a German, has devoted an entire treatise to the subject, intitled, *De vestitu mulierum Hebraicarum*, which all succeeding interpreters mention with gratitude. If I shall be found to have deviated in any instance from the opinions of those who have gone before me, the reader will observe that I have not ventured to do it without consulting very experienced matrons of my own acquaintance, to whom I did faithfully, from Lexicons, &c. communicate what I shall now lay down, the etymologies of the several names of dress that occur in this passage.

' עַכְסִים *to fetter*, gives name to rings about the legs and hands, worn by the Arab women, as Rauwolf testifies, in numbers together, which in their stepping slip up and down, and make a great noise. שְׁבִיטִים, supposed from שָׁבַץ, *to knot or fringe*, denotes the embrodered kerchiefs on the head, described by Lady M. W. Montague, V. ii. let. 29. שְׁהָרִים, *lunula*, ornaments in the crescent form, still in favour among the Turks. נֶטְפָה, *is to drop or distil*, as a pendant from the ears. The bracelets and necklaces were held together by clasps, from the verb שָׁרַר *to regulate*. רָעַל, *to shake in the wind*, is the origin of those waving veils, that half covered the

face, playing about in the wind. פֶּאֶר is a head-dress in the diadem form, rising conically from the crown of the head; called so by way of eminence, from פֶּאֶרָה *beauty*. צַעֲרוֹת, from צַעַר *to strut*, were chains about the legs, tying them together in such a manner, that the female steps should be all *measured and mincing*, as described v. 16. קֶשֶׁר *to bind*: whence קֶשֶׁרִים, *zones or binders*. בְּתֵי־נֶפֶשׁ, Heb. *houses of smell*, smelling or perfume-boxes, appended by the ladies either to the necklace or the girdle. The *amulets* were little figures of serpents, dangling over the bosom, and supposed to be a charm (לְהַשׁ) against noxious creatures. The *jewels of the nostril* are still counted a principal ornament of Eastern woman: the nose is perforated, and adorned with large rings, set with jewels. From לַחֲץ *to loosen*, חֲלָצוֹת denotes the *loose robes* (or *pellices*) put on or off, occasionally, by the Turkish ladies, according to the weather. Lady [M. W.] Montague, Lett. V. ii. p. 13, 14. עֵטָף *to muffle*; מַעֲטָפוֹת, called by the Turks *murlins*, two veils, one that covers the face, all but the eyes, another that hides the whole dress of the head, and hangs half way down the back: without these no woman of what rank soever, is permitted to go into the streets: Lady Montague, ib. let. 29. מְטַפְחוֹת, from טָפַח *to extend* wide wrappers or plaids, the ancient *πεπλός*, worn still by the Arabs, and termed by them *hykes*: Dr. Shaw, Trav. p. 225. הָרִיט, a sachel or work-bag, (properly, a *cone*) curiously adorned on the outside, in which Abarbanel says the ladies carried their trinkets. נָלִין is a *mirror*, from נָלַה *to reveal*; here in a list of dresses, it points to those robes, transparent like gauze, which the Romans called *Coa*, from the first introducer, one Pamphila, of the island of Cos. The fashion passed from Greece to Rome, when luxury began to prevail under the Emperors. סָרִין, from an Arab word implying *to loosen*, in Greek *σινδών*, Lat. *sindon*, a linen or cotton dress worn next to the skin, as Kimchi testifies. צִנִּיָּה is a turban, from צָנָה *to wrap round*, being a sash wrapt round the bottom of a cap. רָדֵר from רָדָה *to descend*, a shawl or kind of veil falling low behind, for *summer dress*, if the LXX rendering, *ὑπερίσκιος*, is right. And so ends the catalogue.

If these two R.R. critics have been successful in ascertaining the meaning of the several terms expressive of female decoration, it will be obvious that the modern dress of the ladies does not differ much from the antient fashions; that the transparent drapery, which we term Grecian, is in fact oriental; and that a profusion of trinkets was added to the dress. We have lately heard of a clergyman who excited the marked displeasure of some ladies, by animadverting on the modern female costume: but, if attention be paid to the above passage, must it not be evident that the meretricious dress of the ladies is indicative of a decline of public morals, if it be not a circumstance of awful consideration as portending national judgments?

To conclude: this work is on the whole highly creditable to the learned Prelate. In the notes, he has confined himself in a great measure to the province of a verbal critic, and has en-

deavoured to render them as concise as possible. Should a new edition be required, this translation would no doubt receive considerable emendations; as well as be enriched with many of the MS. notes of Archbishop Newcome, which were bequeathed to the Library at Lambeth, and which could not be consulted when the present work was first put to the press. For the honour of sacred literature, we hope that Dr. Stock's ardour will not be suffered to abate; and that one critic will succeed another, till we obtain a complete translation of the sublime compositions of the son of Amos.

ART. VI. *Observations on Cancer*, connected with Histories of the Disease. By Everard Home, Esq. F.R.S. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Nicol. 1805.

As the attention of the medical world has of late been particularly directed to the investigation of cancer, a number of treatises have consequently appeared on this subject; and, among these, the present performance must unquestionably be regarded as holding high rank. The justly acquired reputation of its author would alone intitle it to respectful notice; and this sentiment will be not a little increased, when we learn that it contains the result of the observations made not only by Mr. Home himself, but those also of his celebrated relative Mr. Hunter.

The first eight chapters principally consist of a number of cases, detailed with more or less minuteness, (and we may add, of more or less practical value,) arranged under different heads, with a view to the establishment of particular positions respecting the disease, or the illustration of some of its phenomena. Chapter I. contains 'cases of cancer, the origin of which was ascertained;' they are two in number; the first giving a minute account of a cancer of the penis, brought on by a severe bruise; the second, a cancer of the foot, produced by the pinching of a tight shoe. In these instances, no apparent disease existed previously to the accidental injury of the parts; the author therefore infers that the cancer was the immediate result of that injury, and hence deduces the important conclusion that cancer is in its origin entirely a local disease.

'From the facts that have been stated, in the preceding cases, it appears, that cancer is a disease which is local in its origin. In this respect, the cases here given only confirm an opinion, very generally received among medical practitioners, but in favour of which no series of facts had been laid before the public, of sufficient force entirely to establish the position.'

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Our readers must be aware that this opinion, though perhaps the one which is most generally adopted by modern practitioners, is not, by any means, universally admitted; we are, then, naturally led to ask how far the idea is confirmed, or rather proved, by the two cases now before us. If, by *local*, nothing more is meant than that a cancerous affection may commence in a part of the body, while the rest of the system exhibits no marks of disease, we readily assent to the position; and, indeed, we know not how it could ever have been questioned:—but we apprehend that something more is assumed by Mr. Home; and that his reasoning is intended to prove that the application of external violence to a glandular structure is at all times adequate to produce the disease, without the co-operation of a constitutional pre-disposition. To this statement, we conceive, some doubt still attaches; we are very certain that the mere pinching of a shoe does not always produce cancer, and that this consequence does not follow in one instance out of ten thousand; there must, then, be a local pre-disposition; and experience alone can determine whether this pre-disposition be confined to the part, or extended to the system at large. However decisive the two cases here adduced might be in favor of the former opinion, we think that it would require a much greater number of instances to establish any such position. Every surgeon, who is engaged in extensive practice, must have seen more than two cases in which white swelling was induced by a bruise on the knee; and who has not witnessed numerous instances of the production of phthisis by the application of cold: but are we, therefore, to consider white swelling and phthisis as diseases unconnected with a peculiar state of the constitution? We wish not to be understood as controverting Mr. Home's opinion, but as endeavouring to shew that it is adopted without sufficient grounds.

After having treated of the local nature of cancer, the author lays down the position, 'that cancer is not a disease which immediately takes place in a healthy part of the body, but one for the production of which it is necessary that the part should have undergone some previous change, connected with disease.' This doctrine, however, depends immediately on a point which is previously assumed as deducible from the cases brought forwards in this volume, that common indolent tumors, not originally cancerous, may become so from the application of different irritating causes. This is a matter of great practical importance, and involves a number of very interesting queries. We are led to ask what is the nature of these indolent tumors? are they always, or in any instance, of a scrophu-

a serophulous origin? are all indolent tumors subject to become cancerous? do they always precede cancer? what are the first symptoms that indicate their change from the indolent to the cancerous state? We fear that it would be impossible to find a satisfactory answer to any one of these questions in Mr. Home's work: but we are more inclined to ascribe the deficiency of information to the real want of knowledge on the subject, than to any failure on the part of the author.

In most topics like the present, it has happened that considerable uncertainty has existed respecting the exact nature of the disease in question. As this has undoubtedly taken place to a considerable extent in the malady now under consideration, we felt particularly anxious to know the sentiments of so accurate an observer as Mr. Home on this point, and eagerly perused that paragraph in which he professes to determine what morbid symptoms are intitled to the appellation of cancer:

'As cancer is a term too indiscriminately applied to many local diseases, for which we have no remedy, though they differ very much among themselves, it becomes necessary to state what the complaints are which I include under this denomination.

'The present observations respecting cancer apply only to those diseased appearances which are capable of contaminating other parts, either by direct communication, or through the medium of the absorbents; and, when they approach the skin, produce in it small tumors of their own nature, by a mode of contamination with which we are, at present, unacquainted.

'There is a disease by which parts of a glandular structure are very frequently attacked, particularly the os tincæ, the alæ of the nose, the lips, and the glans penis. This has been called cancer, but differs from the species of which we are now treating, in not contaminating the neighbouring parts with which it is in contact; and neither affecting the absorbent glands, nor the skin at a distance from it. It is, properly speaking, an eating sore, which is uniformly progressive; whereas in cancer, after the sore has made some progress, a ridge is formed upon the margin, and the ulceration no longer takes that direction. It also differs from cancer, in admitting of a cure in many instances, and under different modes of treatment.'

The importance of the subject has induced us to quote this passage: but our readers will probably feel, as we did, that the account is still unsatisfactory. The diagnostics here pointed out refer solely to the termination or progress of the complaint, and not to the appearances which it exhibits; at least those in the early stage, when we can alone hope to cure it, or remove it with any prospect of advantage. Mr. Home thinks that his idea respecting cancer is incompatible with the generally received opinion of its hereditary nature, but he grants that it occurs



occurs more frequently in particular families, and that some constitutions may be more liable to be attacked by it than others. This is, in reality, admitting the fact; at least it involves every practical consequence that we could deduce from it.

Proceeding on the principle of Mr. Home, that a common indolent tumor frequently continues for a long time stationary, but, on the occurrence of any irritating cause, is liable to assume the cancerous character, it becomes in every point of view a most important object to accomplish the dispersion of these tumors; an object which, happily, may be in many instances attained :

\* The means which have been most efficient in reducing such tumors are the application of leeches, at short intervals, the periods being varied according to circumstances. The external use of spirit of wine, camphor, and Goulard's extract of lead, in different proportions; mercurial ointment, of different degrees of strength, with or without camphor; and poultices, in which hemlock is the principal ingredient. By one or other of these applications many tumors in the breast have been dispersed, and the medical person who directed the application has acquired the reputation of having cured a cancer; and I am led to believe that he has, indeed, done the next thing to it; that is, he has prevented a cancer from being formed at all.

\* Those tumors which arise in consequence of cold yield most readily to the bleeding by leeches. Those which are more indolent, and rather give the idea of being connected with a languid state of constitution, give way to hemlock or mercury.

\* There is a swelling, which sometimes takes place upon the margin of the mamma, mid-way between the nipple and the axilla, which appears to be independent of the gland of the breast, and only an affection of a lymphatic gland in that situation, which readily becomes enlarged, and often yields to an application composed of equal proportions of spirit of wine and camphorated spirit, with one-eighth part of Goulard's extract of lead.'

Our limits will not permit us to follow Mr. Home through all the interesting ideas which he suggests on the different stages of scirrhus; his observations on scrophulous tumors, and the difficulty of distinguishing between them and those of a cancerous nature; and his inquiry into the respective merits of the two methods employed for the removal of cancer, viz. by the knife, and by the application of different caustic substances. The volume concludes with some judicious practical remarks on the extirpation of different cancerous parts, the breast, the eye, the tongue, and the testicle.

Though a few strictures have thus been called from us, the work has afforded us, in many respects, a high degree of satisfaction; it is equally distinguished by judgment and candour ;  
and

and it contains the result of much practical observation, delivered in an unaffected style, and free from that theoretical jargon which too frequently obscures the medical writings even of the highest reputation. Yet we think that it would have been of higher value, if the author had done something more than he has accomplished in merely giving his own experience on the subject of cancer. A number of curious and interesting questions have been frequently canvassed, on which we should have been much gratified to have heard Mr. Home's opinion. Enough, perhaps, has been written on this subject, with a mere view to the collection of insulated facts; and cancer is not a novel nor a rare occurrence, but was described centuries ago, and, alas! is now daily seen. Our knowledge would probably be more advanced by an attempt to generalize the numerous facts with which we are furnished, and to reconcile the discordant opinions which have been entertained, than by each individual still continuing to publish the result of his own practice. We mean not to undervalue what Mr. Home has done, but we regret that he has not extended his labours.

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ART. VII. *The History of the Roman Wall*, which crosses the Island of Britain, from the German Ocean to the Irish Sea; describing its Ancient State and its Appearance in the Year 1801. By W. Hutton, F.A.S. S. 8vo. pp. 340. 7s. Boards. Nichols, Rivingtons, &c.

SINGULAR characters undertake singular adventures, and relate them in a singular manner. We have a case in point before us. A gentleman, at the age seventy-eight, takes a pedestrian journey of six-hundred miles, with a black wallet and an umbrella at his back, to explore the whole length of Severus's wall, for the purpose of ascertaining its present state! Animated by the enthusiasm of an antiquary, the relics of this the most stupendous monument of Britain might be to him a matter of curiosity: but can an old man render his account of an old wall interesting? Yes. Mr. Hutton, though, by no means in his "*second childhood*," is as alert and playful as a kitten; and that reader must be saturnine indeed, who can peruse his book without being amused. We will not say that Nature, after she made Mr. Hutton, "*broke the mould*:" but we may venture to assert that we might stand any day for six hours at Charing Cross, and not meet one individual like him. If he has oddities, he has much sense and goodness of heart blended with them; and he seems to have more wit than commonly falls to the share of an antiquary. From the title of his work, we anticipated no great entertainment: but we were agreeably disappointed; and his tour to  
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the Roman Wall has afforded us not less pleasure than information.

*The Wall* is about 74 miles long. This extent Mr. H. traversed twice on foot, during the month of July, under a burning sun, with his pouch at his back, and ink-bottle at his button, in seven days and six hours; (great exertion for a man of 78!) and he performed the whole of his journey from Birmingham and back again, a route of 601 miles, in 35 days and a half, with the expenditure 'of forty guineas, and the loss by perspiration of one stone of animal weight.'

To prepare his readers for accompanying him on his expedition, Mr. H. first gives a history of the Wall, and the motives for its erection. He distinguishes between the mounds or earth-works of Agricola and Hadrian, and what may properly be called the wall of Severus, which was constructed of masonry, 8 feet thick, 12 feet high, with the battlements rising about 4 feet more; and which, in its whole extent, was fortified by 18 principal stations, 83 castles, (called, from being about a mile distant from each other, mile-castles,) and 330 turrets: occasioning, as he vaguely supposes, the expenditure of an hundred millions of our present money, requiring thirty years in the construction, and occupying more than five square miles, or 3000 acres of land.

'The history of the Wall involves a view of the depredations and murders committed by the Borderers, and of the depositions made before the Commissioners of the Marches in the sixteenth century respecting the mutual inroads of these plunderers. The horrid recitals occasion this reflection: 'Would a Mahometan suppose I was treating of Christians! Should a Divine enquire what improvement Christianity had made in the human mind, he must not go near the Wall.'—The particulars stated by Mr. Hutton respecting the jurisdiction of the Lords Wardens of the Marches, the History of the *Debateable Ground*, (intermediate land claimed by both crowns,) and the accounts of the *Moss Troopers* and their incursions, add considerably to the interest of the volume. It is not, however, to be denied that the information which is here conveyed might have been included in much narrower limits, and have been detailed with more neatness and method. The evidence contained in the minutes of several special commissioners, instructs us far more with respect to the miseries of those once ill-fated districts, than all the formal details of our ordinary historians; and it induces us to reflect that, had the result of the Scotch union only been that of putting an end to so serious an evil, it would have deserved the highest commendation.

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The route of this septuagenary, we should have said almost octogenary pedestrian, to the prescribed site of observation, is marked by short notices of the towns and villages through which he passed. The reader will often smile at the *dryness* (to use a vulgar term) of his remarks. One specimen must here suffice :

‘ The cathedral (at Litchfield) is large, and grand ; and, as a national building, is a credit ; but considered as a place of divine worship, there is more of ostentation than of use ; for the devotional part is small, compared to the remainder. The internal walls are in some places covered with green mould. Perhaps our pious ancestors thought their prayers would rise with double effect from stone fret-work and gilt timber. Simplicity is characteristic of Christianity. We have reason to conclude, that the church of the Apostles was a private room, not worth ten shillings a-year.’

As far as Penrith, Mr. Hutton was attended by his daughter and her servant on horseback, accompanying a gentleman and lady on a visit to the Lakes : but from this point his rambles were solitary. At Carlisle, he greeted the long-wished-for Wall, and thence he proceeded down to Boulness, the extremity of the wall towards the Irish sea : but he does not commence his account of it till he reaches the opposite end, on the borders of the German Ocean, near Newcastle. Great perseverance and assiduity were displayed by Mr. H. in tracing the direction and remains of this celebrated rampart ; in consequence of which his ideas respecting the original works, and his report of their present state, merit attention.

‘ All our Historians (he observes) have failed in two points : they have not given us the dimensions of the mile-castles, which always joined the Wall, and were from twenty-two to twenty-four yards square ; nor distinguished the works of Agricola from those of Hadrian ; but have confused both, under the name of the latter.

‘ There were four different works in this grand barrier, performed by three personages, and at different periods. I will measure them from South to North, describe them distinctly, and appropriate each part to its proprietor ; for, although every part is dreadfully mutilated, yet, by selecting the best of each, we easily form a whole ; from *what is* we can nearly tell *what was*. We must take our dimensions from the original surface of the ground.

‘ Let us suppose a ditch, like that at the foot of a quickset hedge, three or four feet deep, and as wide. A bank rising from it, ten feet high, and thirty wide in the base. This, with the ditch, will give us a rise of thirteen feet at least. The other side of this bank sinks into a ditch ten feet deep, and fifteen wide, which gives the North side of this bank a declivity of twenty feet. A small part of the soil thrown out on the North side of this fifteen feet ditch, forms a bank three feet high, and six wide, which gives an elevation from the bottom of the ditch, of thirteen feet. Thus our two ditches, and two mounds, sufficient to keep out every  
rogue,

rogue, but he who was determined not to be kept out, were the work of Agricola.

'The works of Hadrian invariably join those of Agricola. They always correspond together, as beautiful parallel lines. Close to the North side of the little bank I last described, Hadrian sunk a ditch twenty-four feet wide, and twelve below the surface of the ground; which, added to Agricola's three feet bank, forms a declivity of fifteen feet on the South, and on the North, twelve. Then follows a plain of level ground, twenty-four yards over, and a bank exactly the same as Agricola's, ten feet high, and thirty in the base; and then he finishes, as his predecessor began, with a small ditch of three or four feet.

'Thus the two works exactly coincide; and must, when complete, have been most grand and beautiful. Agricola's works cover about fifty-two feet, and Hadrian's about eighty-one; but this will admit of some variation.'

'Severus's works run nearly parallel; the other two lie on the North, never far distant; but may be said always to keep them in view, running a course that best suited the judgment of the maker. The nearest distance is about twenty yards, and greatest near a mile, the medium forty or fifty yards.

'They consist of a stone wall eight feet thick, twelve high, and four, the battlements; with a ditch to the North, as near as convenient, thirty-six feet wide and fifteen deep. To the Wall were added, at unequal distances, a number of Stations, or Cities, said to be eighteen, which is not perfectly true; eighty-one castles, and three hundred and thirty castelets, or turrets, which I believe is true: all joining the Wall.

'Exclusive of this Wall and ditch, these Stations, castles, and turrets, Severus constituted a variety of roads yet called *Roman Roads*, twenty-four feet wide, and eighteen inches high in the centre, which led from turret to turret, from one castle to another, and still larger, and more distant roads from the Wall, which led from one Station to another, besides the grand military way before mentioned, which covered all the works, and no doubt was first formed by Agricola, improved by Hadrian, and, after lying dormant fifteen hundred years, was made complete in 1752.

'I saw many of these smaller roads, all overgrown with turf; and, when on the side of a hill, they are supported on the lower side with edging stones.

'Thus Agricola formed a small ditch, then a bank and ditch, both large, and then finished with a small bank.

'Hadrian joined to this small bank a large ditch, then a plain, a large mound, and then finished with a small ditch.

'Severus followed nearly in the same line, with a wall, a variety of Stations, castles, turrets, a large ditch, and many roads. By much the most laborious task. This forms the whole works of our three renowned Chiefs.'

Mr. H.'s account of the wall at the fifth station will afford the reader some notion of its actual condition, in those parts at which it is most perfect:

'I now

‘ I now travel over a large common, still upon the Wall, with its trench nearly complete. But what was my surprize when I beheld, thirty yards on my left, the united works of Agricola and Hadrian, almost perfect! I climbed over a stone wall to examine the wonder; measured the whole in every direction; surveyed them with surprise, with delight, was fascinated, and unable to proceed; forgot I was upon a wild common, a stranger, and the opening approaching. I had the grandest works under my eye, of the greatest men of the age in which they lived, and of the most eminent nation then existing; all which had suffered but little during the long course of sixteen hundred years. Even hunger and fatigue were lost in the grandeur before me. If a man writes a book upon a turnpike road, he cannot be expected to move quick; but, lost in astonishment, I was not able to move at all.

‘ Upon this common, which is very high ground, I more than once observed some of the facing stones of Severus's Wall under my feet, just as the Romans placed them, which proves that the road is raised so high, as to bury some part of the Wall; this simple sight I could not observe without surprise and pleasure.

‘ At St. Oswald's the road turns a little to the left, for a few yards, and leaves the Wall to the right; but very soon crosses it again.

‘ Had I been some months sooner, I should have been favoured with a noble treat; but now that treat was miserably soured.

‘ At the twentieth-mile stone, I should have seen a piece of Severus's Wall seven feet and a half high, and two hundred and twenty-four yards long: a sight not to be found in the whole line. But the proprietor, *Henry Tulip*, Esq. is now taking it down, to erect a farmhouse with the materials. Ninety-five yards are already destroyed, and the stones fit for building removed. Then we come to thirteen yards which are standing, and overgrown on the top with brambles.’—

‘ The next forty yards were just demolished; and the stones, of all sizes, from one pound to two hundred weight, lying in one continued heap, none removed.

‘ The next forty yards are standing, seven feet high.

‘ Then follows the last division, consisting of thirty-six yards, which is sacrificed by the mattock, the largest stones selected, and the small left. The facing-stones remain on both sides. This grand exhibition must be seen no more. How little we value what is daily under the eye!

‘ Here was a fine opportunity for measuring. The foundation was one foot below the surface of the ground, and consisted of two courses of stone, each six inches thick, extending to the width of six feet and a half. The second course set off three inches on each side, which reduced the foundation to six feet, and the third, three inches of a side more, reducing the Wall to five feet and a half, its real thickness here.’

As Mr. H's route led him to cross the island from sea to sea, while following on foot the direction of the wall, he was obliged

REV. MARCH, 1806.

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to traverse much dreary ground, and to submit to some privations: but he makes the best of every occurrence, and seems to have enjoyed adventures which would have soured an Epicurean philosopher. Between the seventh and eighth station, he found himself, as the evening approached, on a dreary country, hungry and exhausted; and he was compelled to repair to a solitary public house on the military road, known by no other name than that of *Twice Brewed*. The following dialogue will give the best possible picture of the traveller's entrance and reception:

"Can you favour me with a bed?"

"I cannot tell till the company comes."

"What, is it club-night?"

"Yes, a club of carriers."

"A pudding was then turned out, about as big as a peck measure; and a piece of beef out of the copper, perhaps equal to half a calf."

"You must be so kind as to indulge me with a bed. I will be satisfied with any thing."

"I cannot, except you will sleep with this man" (pointing to a poor sick traveller who had fallen ill upon the road).

"That will be inconvenient."

"Will you consent to sleep with this boy?" (about ten,)  
"Yes."

"Having completed our bargain, and supped, fifteen carriers approached, each with a one-horse cart, and sat down to the pudding and beef, which I soon perceived were not too large. I was the only one admitted; and watched them with attention, being highly diverted. Every piece went down as if there was no barricade in the throat. One of those pieces was more than I have seen eaten at a meal by a moderate person. They convinced me that eating was the "chief end of man." The tankard too, like a bowl lading water out of the well, was *often emptied, often filled*.

"My landlady, however, swerved from her agreement; for she found me a *whole* bed to my wish."

At another public house he found 'no ale, cyder, porter, beer, nor liquors of any kind,' nor food, excepting milk. *Entertainment for man and horse*, we hope, was not written over the door.

Between the seventh and last stations, Mr. H. turns aside from the wall, to remark on an object which reminded him of "the joys of his dancing days:"—"I saw *Gretna Green*, that source of repentance; but, being myself half a century above par, and not having with me an amorous lass of eighteen with as many thousands, I had no occasion for the blacksmith."

This tour, the result of singular enthusiasm in a man of seventy eight, will be of use in correcting the errors of writers who have copied from each other without examination. Mr. H. supposes that he is the only man who has travelled the whole

length of the wall, and is probably the last who will attempt it. The former part of his assertion may be true : but it is not unlikely that his book will put some other antiquary on the trot ; and if this should be the case, we recommend it to him to take a servant, provided with the means of excavating the earth near the military stations : for it must be remembered that, if Mr. Hutton, considering his age, performed wonders, his survey was rapid and merely superficial. Any farther examination, also, should be undertaken without much delay ; for this antiquarian pilgrim states, with great indignation and sorrow, that important dilapidations are making on the remains of this precious relic ; and he gives it as his opinion that it has suffered more in the last century than in the fifteen preceding.

ART. VIII. *The Scarborough Tour*, in 1803. By W. Hutton, F.A.SS. 8vo. pp. 318. 6s. Boards. Nichols, Rivingtons, &c.

THE preceding article will have supplied the reader with an idea of the merits and peculiarities of Mr. Hutton, and the present volume will be found to possess a corresponding character. Its subject, however, is not so remarkable, nor his mode of travelling : for we now find him contented to ride in a mail coach. Yet he is still independent of all such vehicles, and ‘ at fourscore can with ease walk thirty miles a day.’— Criticism must feel an aversion to play its cudgels on the shoulders of an octogenary adventurer, who has been hardy enough to place himself within its reach. It is not age alone, however, that pleads in favour of Mr. Hutton ; his pages manifest traits of good sense, strokes of good humour, evidences of a tolerant spirit, and proofs of a decidedly virtuous turn of mind, which, if they fail to render the narrative classical, secure to the writer the esteem of every good reader.

Fastidious must be the man who will not be more pleased than offended with the following display of natural garrulity, and innocent vanity :

#### “ DERBY.

‘ Here I reviewed the various scenes of former acts ; which gave a scope for reflection. I examined the Silkmill, once the wonder of the age, which I had known in its pristine state, and had lived to see it wear out even a building lease, and was nearly worn out itself. I was, seventy-three years ago, the least of three hundred people who laboured there ; every one, upon enquiry, was now in the grave. Five thousand have since succeeded ; and I was given to understand that their united property did not exceed mine. Such is the fluctuation of things !

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‘ Every



'Every person was unknown to me. I frequently singled out, and accosted an old man; when it appeared that I had known his father in youth.—Two generations had passed away since I knew the place. The town is increasing, and rising to opulence.'

York attracts much of this observer's notice; and in his description of the Cathedral, we think that he appears on a par with many writers of higher pretensions:

'I have wandered through the streets of York with the eye of enquiry, have taken the liberty of remarking beauty and defect; but now I am arrived at a place of wonder! one of the greatest works of human production. Its magnitude is surprising! its execution astonishing! Such a work, I am persuaded, could not be performed in the present day for two millions of money, nor in less time than fifty or, perhaps, one hundred years.

'St. Paul's is a grand and national object; Westminster is precious for the *dust* it contains; but here seems to have been infused as much fict-work as the genius of man could contrive. Nothing was omitted which could add ornament. If earth *could* groan under burden, she must groan under this; if multitude of holy stone and mortar conveys the soul to heaven, the founders rest in peace.'

'There are two fronts, a West and a South. When the inhabitants observed me standing in one posture for half an hour, to get the South front by heart, they would be apt to think me a little deranged. My whole attention was spent upon what to them was not worth a glance, except they sent one by chance upon the dial; but I was so struck with admiration that I could neither desert nor change the attitude; and when I departed, it was with regret.

'Windows make a considerable part of the shell. I think all the glass is curiously painted, and all whole.

'In the South front, which I am now surveying, is a circular window, sixteen or eighteen feet diameter, curious and beautiful, but rather heavy. At the top of this part of the building stands the statue of a man, as if overlooking the city; but my guide assured me it was a *fiddler* in the attitude of performing. What! placed there as a joke upon the church? or is it to invite the people *without*, to hear the music within? or, perhaps, to excite them into a jovial dance when the worship is over; a Sunday-mode long practised by our ancestors.

'The main tower, called the lanthorn, stands over this part of the church, which is the centre. This steeple is too short for its bulk. It ought to have had an ornament of suitable size rising from the summit.

'The West is the chief front, and is a most beautiful picture; delightful, viewed in every direction: but, alas! the stone is not proof against time. The whole building, but chiefly this part, is full of imagery, scripture histories, and those of the saints, few of which are now understood. One on my right I take to be the story

\* Mr. H., we suppose, would not be understood literally thus to restrict his praise of Westminster Abbey.

of the good Samaritan. Another answers it on my left; the holy family driving their ass into Egypt. On each side of the great door, which is the centre, is a knight in armour, *Vavasour* and *Percy*, both benefactors to the church.

'The most perfect uniformity is preserved in this front. The two steeples exactly correspond with each other, stand on each side as out-guards, and leave a grand entrance in the centre; over which sits archbishop Malton, the founder of this beautiful front. The eye is fascinated, and unwilling to quit.

'At the East end of this grand work, the chancel is the most noble window I ever beheld; I think my guide said, twenty-seven yards high; and as beautiful as large. The North side has its ornaments, but in less degree; one of which is five very large windows in one, perfectly uniform, called *The Five Sisters*, painted from the needle-work wrought, and said to be *given*, by five sisters.

'The length of the building is five hundred and twenty-four feet, and its breadth, along the cross aisle, two hundred and twenty-two; in height ninety-nine. The stone of the cathedral was given by *Vavasour*, and brought from Tadcaster; and *Percy* gave the timber.'

Having traced the history and depicted the interior of this building, he thus closes the chapter:

'To consider the cathedral as a place of worship is not considering it in character except we can prove that the Divine Being is better pleased with that worship which springs from rich carvings, gilt ornaments, painted glass, and extension of fabric, than with a humble style. If he is; what then becomes of those plain worshippers who can afford nothing better than a simple room? Are their prayers an abomination? What becomes, too, of the poor village worshippers? When I attended these in Wales, I was accommodated with one of the best seats, which was a log of timber that never knew the plane, a floor of mud, and my foot-stool a wisp of straw. If devotion proceeds from the heart, as we are told, why not equally acceptable, be the place what it may?

'The cathedral before us is more a place of wonder than of worship; a piece of national grandeur, which is a credit to the erec-tors; a monument of riches and of vanity. They built for a name, and they found one.'

At length, when nearly two thirds of the volume have been exhausted, we arrive at the celebrated bathing place which was the object and end of the author's journey. In our account of Mr. Hinderwell's *History of Scarborough*, Rev. Vol. xxxii. N. S. p. 49. we furnished the reader with various particulars respecting that town: but we may now add a few of Mr. Hutton's remarks:

'The town consists of about thirty streets: most of them are short, and all narrow, except two, Queen street, which is very passable, but particularly Newborough, which is handsome. None are dirty;

silt cannot lodge from the great descent of the streets, and the power of the rain.

'They are well paved, but generally so very confined, that we should suspect when the inhabitants erected their houses, they forgot to leave a road. Most of the streets are so very steep, that a carriage cannot run with safety.'—

'In this space, which is about ten acres, there are forty passages or thoroughfares, for they do not deserve the name of streets; many of them are crowded with buildings, and are better adapted for the burrow of rabbits than of men. The air of Scarborough is excellent, if not contaminated by art.

'The longest diameter of the town, that is, from the Bull, on the outside of Newborough gate to the pier head, is about six hundred yards; and the widest, that is, from the New Steps to the top of Toller gate, about two hundred and sixty. The town is curved, forming the figure of a bow, or half moon; the shape of the cliff, whether viewed in front, facing the sea, or the back, towards the land.

'Viewed from the church-yard, or the castle-hill, it is a close and compact cluster of houses, covered with red.

'The unevenness of the town will appear from the following measures. You rise ninety-four steps from the sands at the New Steps to the top of Merchants Row, perhaps thirty yards perpendicular; from thence to the church-yard twice that height; and from the church-yard to the castle about forty more. So that, in covering an horizontal space of five hundred yards, you rise about one hundred and thirty.

'The whole of Merchants Row is upon the cliff. The houses fronting the street are three stories high; the other side, fronting the sea, are often six.

'The number of houses in Scarborough I take to be about eight hundred; if we allow five persons to a house, the number of inhabitants will be four thousand.

'From the above description, it will appear that the situation of the place is delightful, especially in summer, to the man who has money to pay his way, breath and powers to climb the hills, and a mind exonerated from care. He may also chuse what company he pleases; for there is good nature enough in Scarborough to satisfy every desire.'—

'Every tide produces entertainment, particularly for the ladies, in the production of sea-weeds; many of them as beautiful as the hand which spreads them. Valuable shells are not common, though sometimes found; I saw three or four while there. Common shells may be picked up by thousands, adhering to the rocks, at low water, North of the castle, but of little value.

'I saw a most beautiful star-fish alive; and should have preserved it, had it not lost a limb. Cornelian stones are found; I was shewn two or three recently taken up. The old and the idle are frequently seen poring among the rocks for something curious to sell.'—

'While the tide is in, there is scarcely room to pass between the buildings and the water; but, when out, it leaves a space of pure sand,

two hundred yards wide, and eleven hundred long ; the most pleasing, safe, and useful, I ever saw ; perfectly adapted for the foot, the horse, and the carriage. This is terminated on the North, by the Castle-hill, the piers, and the conveniencies for mooring vessels ; and on the South by the breakers, which cause a bold sea.

‘ The children are delighted with these sands, and I as much delighted to watch them. To observe the little animals, in the greatest degree of health and spirits, fabricating their pies and their castles in the sand, is a treat for a philosopher. Their parents are under no fear ; neither horse nor carriage can injure them ; if they fall, they cannot be hurt ; if they gambol, they cannot be daubed. This is the highest pitch of felicity which can be attained by human nature.’

We learn moreover that excellent roads lead to this spot of fashionable resort ; that the prospects in its environs are delightful ; that fresh water is a scarce article : but that its fisheries are so considerable as to abundantly supply the demands of the inhabitants and visitors, as well as those of a large export trade.

We must not omit another attraction of Scarborough, mentioned by Mr. Hutton :

‘ The Well, or Wells, for there are two, are but a few yards asunder, have nearly the same effect, and are situated upon the sands, about five hundred yards from the town. Being far below high-water mark, the Corporation has hemmed them in by a bank, perhaps five yards high, and ten wide in the base, filled like the piers, with stones of all sizes mixed with earth, supported with piles, and banded with large beams of timber, perhaps at the expence of one thousand pounds.

‘ The ravages of the sea have ruined this ponderous work ; and it now lies ready for another thousand.

‘ These two sister Wells, guarded by a pair of Duennas, tend to preserve life, and restore health ; operate favourably in debilitated cases. They brace and invigorate the stomach, are pleasant to the taste, create an appetite, are serviceable in nervous complaints, the scurvy, in weakness, in chronic cases, in costive habits, the jaundice ; and, in some degree, are a counterpoise against that grand enemy of man, *intemperance*. But the human constitution is of so various a cast, that the same effect will not always attend the same case.

‘ My daughter’s complaint was a nervous asthma of some standing, from taking cold. We visited Scarborough as the last resort. She stayed eleven weeks, rode on horseback every day, bathed every second, and drank the water three times each day.

‘ About four weeks elapsed before any change was apparent, when her breathing, activity, and strength, began gradually to return ; and Nature seemed approaching towards her former tone ; and, though not perfect, I have hopes that it will tend to preserve that life which I value more than my own.’

On passing through Whitewell, the author strolled into a gentleman's grounds, and observes that

'Not having the appearance of a robber, I was suffered to take my own time, and make my own remarks. I left this sequestered but happy spot as *Adam left his Paradise*.'

Had Mr. H. tasted any *forbidden fruit*?

ART. IX. *A Treatise of the Laws for the Relief and Settlement of the Poor.* By Michael Nolan, of Lincoln's Inn, Esq. Barrister at Law. 2 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Butterworth. 1805.

THAT branch of our jurisprudence, which considers the relief and settlement of the poor, relates to no usages or manners which have grown obsolete, but has arisen out of circumstances and situations peculiar to modern times; it is a recent creation, the origin, the progress, the effects, and the consequences of which are all within our knowledge: it consists of legal enactments designed to meet the supposed exigencies of our political society as at present constituted, and of the application of them by courts of justice to the transactions which they were designed to regulate. The expounder of this part of the law is not required to pore over musty rolls, or decayed muniments; nor is he impeded in his course by a barbarous jargon, an uncouth character, or puzzling abbreviations; he is not obliged to trace his path through a long series of reports, nor is he exposed to the distractions occasioned by endless and jarring comments. Let him not, however, flatter himself with the notion that his course is not beset with any difficulties; for it is by no means an easy task that is imposed upon him. Be his materials what they may, ever so rude, ill assorted, and discordant, he is expected to produce a regular, well proportioned, and handsome structure; and if he fails in this object, he will be censured, though the cause of the failure may lie entirely in the materials on which he was obliged to work. Though the statutes may not harmonize, and though the decisions may be contradictory, will he be excused if he is unable to deduce from them one uniform and consistent doctrine?

If fair and liberal critics will demand nothing that is unreasonable from a writer thus employed, still they will require of him that he should trace the outlines of his subject with precision; introduce into it all the method of which it is susceptible; distinctly mark the divisions and subdivisions into which it

branches itself; arrange these in such a manner as at once to elucidate his topics, and to consult the ease and convenience of his readers; state principles and set forth doctrines in neat and appropriate language; and, above all, that he should be careful never to exceed his authorities, and to have his references to them full and correct.

Having thus brought together the scattered members, and introduced into them as much of system as they will fairly admit, it may be expected that the author should delineate the spirit and character of the whole; that he should note the peculiarities of the structure, and assign the causes, whether political or historical, natural or accidental, which determined them. It may perhaps be allowed him, if he finds that he has adequate strength and skill, sparingly to alleviate the severity of didactic composition, by introducing traits of those great characters whose decisions have contributed so much to the formation of this part of the law; traits which illustrate the rare combination of all the qualifications of a judge in one;—the union of splendid excellencies and pitiful failings in another;—which shew the instinctive correctness, the matchless promptitude, and the inexhaustible learning of a third;—and the chaste decisions which flow from the amply stored and energetic mind of a fourth. The latter ornaments, however, may be omitted without any prejudice to the substantial excellence of the edifice; it must be elegantly constructed in order to admit of them; and they can only be prepared and properly introduced by a superior hand.

Before we pronounce on the manner in which the present writer has performed the duty which he has undertaken, we must examine what the object was which he proposed to himself. If he sought to establish a claim to be consulted and employed in the practice of this branch of the law, we are of opinion that he has not laboured in vain; if he looked to immediate gain from the speculation, as well as to a future increase of business, we trust that he has not in that respect been disappointed; and if he was ambitious of consideration in the class of writers on similar subjects, in this view also we regard him as not wholly unsuccessful: we say *writers*, because in the law there are few *authors*; Coke, and Hale, and Gilbert, were very learned men, but they cannot be properly denominated authors; and in every department of science, with the exception of jurisprudence, all treatises equally uncouth and unfinished have been long ago superseded. Should Mr. Nolan be shocked to see these great names and his own brought together, in order to be involved in one common censure, and be ready to dart a contemptuous glance at the critics who thus confound

confound all established distinctions, we pray not to be misunderstood; we are not unapprized of the vast space which separates the undistinguished barrister from the president of our superior tribunals; the expounder of parochial law, from the illustrious sages whose industry amassed such inexhaustible stores of knowledge, and whose capacious minds embraced all the points of our extensive and complicated jurisprudence:— what we assert is, that the immense distance between these parties respects them as lawyers, and not as authors. From this charge against a very accomplished, interesting, and important class in the community, one splendid instance claims something far beyond mere exemption. If every well educated Briton ought to study the *Commentaries on the Laws of England*, in order duly to appreciate the value of the political blessings to which he has been born; in like manner ought every man of taste to dwell on the same compositions as the happiest specimens of a finished didactic style, that are to be found in our language. A few other legal performances, and but a few, merit praise in the same point of view. It were almost injustice not to advert to recent labours in the modest form of comments, in which very extensive and varied legal information is conveyed with corresponding neatness of style, and precision of statement.

But to return to Mr. Nolan. We acquit him of writing with any design of descending to posterity as the benefactor of British jurisprudence; we do not impute it to him that he ever cherished the presumptuous hope of having his name entered on the roll of fame with the Blackstones and Fearnese, the Yorkes, the Edens, and Douglasses of the profession; nor of having his disquisitions placed by the side of the fine judgments, the able decrees, and the masterly arguments which are scattered through our Reports. If genius did not prompt, neither did presumption impel him to aim at what appears either to have been beyond his strength, or out of the reach of his industry. In repressing any ambitious desires of this sort, he probably acted wisely; for we do not find that he is happy in the few flights which he has attempted, one instance only of which we shall adduce.

When treating of principles which are observed in establishing parish rates; we understand Mr. N. to intimate, that the imperfections of the human intellect render ineligible the adoption of nicer rules than those which are actually followed in practice. Nobody will dispute this proposition with Mr. Nolan. He expresses it thus:

‘ The natural deficiencies and diversities of human sense and intellect, and the variety of our occupations and habits, render it impossible

impossible for practice to follow to its utmost verge, that clear and steady outline which is marked out by the eye of speculation.'

The deficiencies of this passage on the side of intelligibility are, we suppose, compensated by its claims on the score of sublimity. What are the precise ideas included under the terms 'natural deficiencies of human sense and intellect,'—what the distinction is between 'human sense' and 'human intellect,' in the connection in which they are here used,—and how 'the diversities of our avocations and habits' bear at all on the subject,—are mysteries which we suspect can only be elucidated by submitting a case to the learned counsel, on the construction of his own composition, and taking his opinion on it.

Though the mind of Mr. Nolan be not exactly that before which the involved extricates itself, the obscure becomes illumined, and things ill assorted separate in order to find their proper places,—if the commanding talent necessary to accomplish all this were wanting, we must also add that he has not endeavoured to effect it by means of the *improbis labor*. Intricacies, which before existed in this part of the law, still remain such; the difficulties are not so marked and stated as to suggest legislative amendments; nor are principle and practice made to approach more nearly than they did in former treatises on the same subject. In some instances, so briefly are the authorities stated, that those readers must be adepts indeed who can discover in the present text the point which is established, and the principle on which the decision proceeded.

While, however, we think that the *absolute* merit of these volumes is scanty, we do not deny that it may claim such as is *comparative*. We have, doubtless, numerous modern law books which are less laboured, in which the arrangements are less perfect, the statements less satisfactory, and which rise less above mere indexes. The work,—though it has but slender pretensions to literary merit, and though as a legal performance it is not without considerable faults and defects,—will, on many grounds, be esteemed by the profession as a valuable acquisition. A few chapters embracing points not before treated, and an appendix containing all the statutes on the subject, very considerably enhance the value of the performance. We accuse Mr. Nolan of no heavier crime than that of having written in the manner of most of his fellow labourers in the same line; and we know that he is a sensible man, and an able lawyer.



ART. X. *Naval and Military Memoirs of Great Britain, from 1727 to 1783.* By Robert Beaton, Esq. LL.D. 6 Volumes. 8vo. 3l. 3s. Boards. Longman and Co.

IN the year 1790, the first three of these volumes made their original appearance; and they were noticed in our 4th vol. N. S. pp. 198. and 323. We then gave some particulars of the author's plan and object, which we need not now repeat. In the present edition, the third volume still forms an appendix to the first and second; and the sixth bears the same relation to the fourth and fifth, which are now first published. Many of the papers preserved in these collections are curious and valuable, and not elsewhere easily to be found.—It will be perceived that the author has deviated from his primary intention of bringing down his accounts to the year 1789, since they terminate with that of 1783.

With regard to the execution of those volumes which are now first ushered into light, we may observe that it differs in no respect from that of their predecessors, on which we thought it our duty to bestow considerable commendation. The materials might have been somewhat more digested and arranged, without rendering it improper to designate the work as *Memoirs*; and marginal notices of the subjects treated, with more frequent breaks, would have rendered the performance pleasanter in the perusal, and more convenient for use. It would also have displayed greater symmetry, and have been more agreeable to readers in general, had it developed the springs of those proceedings which it so elaborately and minutely details: but, on the other hand, it would necessarily have been much more voluminous, and perhaps would have proved less acceptable to professional men.

A naval history, worthy of the subject, in which the memories of those who have adorned it shall be recorded in language becoming those displays of courage, and those instances of magnanimity, which scarcely the Roman history can parallel, still remains to be written. Over this field, the most philosophic mind cannot travel without astonishment; nor the patriot reflect on it, without regretting that the wisdom of our civil councils so rarely corresponds with the gallantry of our marine achievements. If it ever should happen that a genius duly qualified pays this sublime homage to the country, he will derive essential assistance from the compilation which we are now examining.

Of these volumes, the first series afforded the matter which is most satisfactory in the perusal; since they displayed Britain emancipating by degrees from many untoward circumstances,  
and

and ascending the summit of consideration under a minister who possessed the confidence of the nation, and who directed its energies with consummate address. The part on which we now enter relates the dismal tale of civil discord; communicates the particulars of the process by which subjects were converted into deadly enemies, and members of a distinct independent state; and traces the steps by which discontents were made to settle into permanent disaffection, and the latter was blown up into the flames of civil war:—a detail perused by every lover of his country with a heavy heart, but nevertheless most deserving of the closest attention, and abounding with instruction. Whether the author thought that the justice and expediency of the measures of the British cabinet were questions too high for him, or that his subject did not require a deeper examination of them, he descants but slightly on these topics. For the inclination of his mind, however, with regard to them, we are at no loss; we may refer to one test which sufficiently decides this question. Scarcely a paragraph relating to the American struggle is unsullied by the term *rebel*. The congress is designated 'the rebel congress,' Washington 'the rebel General,' Franklin 'the rebel agent at Paris,' and we hear of the operations of 'the rebel fleet,' or the fate of 'rebel privateers.' We are aware that the author does not profess to write a *history*: but surely even *Memoirs* are degraded by terms of this sort. Were this epithet the most pleasing that ever was adopted, its incessant recurrence here is such as would render it disgusting.

Passing from this blemish, as well as some other less offensive indications of a bias in itself fair and honourable, we must add that the author displays on many occasions a calm and dispassionate spirit which does him great credit, and that observations frequently occur which are candid and judicious. It is, however, very obvious that his relations are favourable to the ministers of the day: very gentle if any censures are passed on men whose temerity, whose oversights, and whose mismanagement were as signal as any which history records; and who were as little adapted as any men could possibly be, to meet the conjuncture on which they were thrown. If *history* does not admit low and hard names, neither does she affect the politeness towards state delinquents which is here shewn. Yet we do not believe that the writer's partiality has induced him in a single instance to suppress any fact within the fair scope of his memoirs, or wilfully to misrepresent any one which he has undertaken to relate. Notwithstanding these objections, therefore, peculiar to the part of the work now under consideration, taken as a whole it is not inferior in value and importance to that which preceded

preceded it. In particular, we highly approve the memoranda of the exploits of our smaller craft. The earlier prowess of the candidate for naval distinction ought not to be overlooked, but his path should be illuminated from its very commencement.

In the subsequent passage, which well accords with the biography of General Washington (see p. 237 of this Number), we contemplate a striking instance of the service which may be rendered to a cause by the superior powers of mind of a military commander :

‘ For several months after General Washington had assumed the command of the rebel army before Boston, his situation was extremely critical. A great scarcity of military stores, particularly of gunpowder, obliged him to act with much circumspection, until their cruizers brought him an ample supply of these articles, from the prizes which they had made of ordnance, transports, and storeships, destined for the use of the British army. But great as this distress was, he had to encounter one still greater: the time of service for which his men had been enlisted was expired, and an army must be raised to replace them. All this was so completely and secretly accomplished, that although the British Generals, with an army of twenty veteran battalions, and a formidable train of artillery, were within less than a mile of the rebels, they discovered neither their want of gunpowder, nor their disbanding one army and recruiting another, in sufficient time to derive any important advantage from their distress. It is hardly possible to conceive how such occurrences could be concealed; but the fact affords an astonishing proof, at once of the attachment and fidelity of the enemy's soldiers to the cause in which they were engaged, and of the unanimity of the provinces in opposing the measures of the British Government.’

The merit of the critical retreat performed by the American Commander in chief, from his position near Kingsbridge, is here given to General Lee; by whose advice this movement is stated to have been made.

The activity, the energy, the resolution, and the perseverance displayed by the insurgents are fairly represented by the author; and particularly General Washington's surprize of the British Cantonments at Trenton and other parts on the Delaware. They allowed their adversaries no respite, they left untried no mode of annoyance, nor did they desist from hazarding every scheme of distressing them. In the early part of this unhappy struggle, the circumstances of the colonies did not admit of any naval displays on either side: but, after some interval, they were able to furnish exercise for the skill and courage of the commanders and men of the mother country, and to make serious impressions on its commerce. Our stores suffered grievously from the activity of their small craft; and it was a marked feature

feature of this singular contest, that it consisted in a great degree of expeditions to take and destroy stores and magazines: a circumstance which served to increase the irritation between the contending parties. In 1776, the summer campaign had proved unfavourable to the affairs of the Americans, but they were very materially retrieved in the winter of the same year, owing to the able conduct of their commander in chief. The campaign of 1777 effected little for Great Britain; the capture of the enemy's capital was an event rather of display than of solid benefit; and the disaster which befel our arms at Saratoga gave a consistence to the American cause which it had not before attained.

In treating on the Parliamentary measures of the ensuing year, —which, had they been introduced in time, would have prevented the fatal schism that rent the British empire,—the author remarks that much weight, in the decision of the Americans to reject all conciliation, must be ascribed to the opportune accomplishment of a treaty of alliance with France. It must also be admitted that the orders issued by ministers to their army and navy, to retreat from Philadelphia, were not calculated to add strength to their conciliatory propositions. The measure was accordingly censured, but Captain Beatson is of opinion that it was indispensable.

Eminent pains appear to have been taken by this writer, to ascertain the particulars of the unfortunate naval engagement of the 27th July 1778, and to appreciate the merits of the unhappy controversy between the Admiral in Chief and his second in command, to which it gave rise. He begins with these preliminary observations:

'We come now to relate the particulars of an action between the British and French fleets, the consequences of which battle employed, for some months, the ablest pens in the nation; and unfortunately, raised a spirit of party which years have not been able entirely to extinguish. We have been at the greatest pains to investigate this important subject, in which two brave and excellent officers became so deeply involved. It cannot be denied, that both were intent to do their duty and serve their country to the utmost. Their unfortunate disagreement on a particular point, in which perhaps both were to blame, is ever to be lamented: but that the victory gained over the enemy was not followed up as it might have been, and which was fully intended and ardently wished for by both, we hope to be able to demonstrate, was not the fault of either Admiral Keppel or of Vice-Admiral Sir Hugh Palliser, but proceeded solely from the defect of proper signals.'

We forbear to insert the author's detailed and elaborate account of the engagement, since it is intelligible in its material parts only to professional men, who will doubtless have recourse to

to the work itself : but, as the dispute to which it gave birth was attended with serious consequences, we shall submit to our readers the view of it here taken :

‘ It is well known, that Admiral Keppel and Sir Hugh Palliser were attached to opposite parties in the British Senate, of which they were both members. The latter being closely connected with Administration, was at that time one of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, Lieutenant General of Marines, and Governor of Scarborough Castle. He was likewise supposed to possess in a high degree, the confidence of the First Lord of the Admiralty. On the contrary, the former was looked upon as an officer forced on the Ministry, who owed his being employed in that expedition to his popularity with the nation in general ; in whose opinion, as well as in that of the service to which he belonged, he stood very high. In these two particulars, the Admiral and Vice-Admiral were peculiarly happy ; for both were regarded as officers of great bravery and merit. Unfortunately for Britain both of them were in a great measure driven from her service, and their very superior abilities lost to their country, by the officious conduct of a person who has never yet presumed to avow his name. Under the mask of a feigned signature, this person intended to give a mortal stab to Administration and their adherents, by imputing the safety of the French fleet, on the 27th of July, solely to the misconduct of Sir Hugh Palliser ; who, he averred, had not obeyed the signals of Admiral Keppel, and had thereby prevented that officer from attacking the enemy in the afternoon of that day. This attack upon the character of Sir Hugh Palliser, appeared in a paragraph in a newspaper, called the *Morning Intelligencer*, of the 15th of October. Happy had it been for the nation, as well as for the sea service, if it had never appeared ; as the accusation could answer no good purpose, and has been productive of the most mischievous consequences. Had the misbehaviour of Sir Hugh Palliser been as gross as the author of that paragraph affirmed it to be, it is not likely that the public should have remained ignorant of it from the 27th of July to the 15th of October ; or that Admiral Keppel would have again gone to sea with an Admiral, who had behaved so unlike an officer in sight of the whole fleet.

‘ A person feeling the consciousness of innocence, which Sir Hugh Palliser most certainly did in a very high degree, could not fail to be greatly hurt, by becoming the object of so groundless an aspersion. He waited impatiently until Admiral Keppel came to London, when he made known to him the calumnies that had been cast upon his character, and requested him to sign a paper, contradicting assertions so hurtful to his reputation. This paper, he wished to insert in one of the newspapers, for the purpose of silencing the slanders that had been so industriously circulated against him. But here, the demon of party rage, which extinguishes every noble principle in the human breast, unfortunately interposed, and exerted her malevolent influence. This request was refused, as it appeared to be derogatory to the dignity of the Commander in Chief of a great fleet, to contradict an anonymous author in a newspaper. An interview took place between the two Admirals ; which, far from tending to heal their difference in  
opinion,

opinion, rather fostered mutual suspicions of each other, which accelerated the progress of this misunderstanding to a very disagreeable issue. On the one hand, the Vice-Admiral was led to believe, that by being refused what he deemed a reasonable request, the assertions injurious to his reputation were sanctioned by Admiral Keppel. On the other hand, the Admiral suspected, that Sir Hugh Palliser was acting by the advice of his principal friends and supporters, and that by artfully getting him to sign a vindication of his conduct, he might furnish the Ministry with a pretext for transferring the whole blame to himself. He was, besides, unwilling to comply with the wishes of a party, which he had no reason to consider as friendly to him. Thus both became irritated, and were carried lengths which, perhaps, the kind interposition of a few dispassionate friends might have prevented. Fortunate indeed it would have been, if, by such means, two men had been reconciled, whose actions had frequently redounded to their own and to their country's honour.

On the 14th of November, Sir Hugh Palliser published, in the newspapers, a vindication of himself; in which he affirmed, that he was not the cause of preventing the French fleet from being attacked on the 27th of July: and in proof of his assertion, accompanied it with a long detail of what had occurred on board the Formidable on that day. On the 2d of December, when the navy estimates came before the House of Commons, in a Committee of Supply, a Member said, that the action of the 27th of July demanded an inquiry. Admiral Keppel spoke in his own vindication, and did not exculpate the Vice-Admiral from what had been alledged against him; but declared, that after the step he had taken, of giving an account of the action in a newspaper, he would never sail with him again. This determined Sir Hugh Palliser to accuse the Admiral, and to impute to his misconduct the unsuccessful termination of the action of the 27th of July: and accordingly, on the ninth of December following, he sent five charges against him to the Board of Admiralty. After considering them, the Board sent them, in the evening of the same day, to Admiral Keppel, with notice to prepare for his trial.

When this proceeding came before the House of Commons, the conduct of the Board of Admiralty was severely reprehended; as precipitate in the extreme; and it was alledged, that they ought to have considered well, whether or not a Court-martial should have been granted at all. Several naval officers, Members of the House, whose names reflect honour on their profession, spake in terms of high approbation of both the Admirals, and lamented the unhappy difference between them. Some of them remarked, that the anonymous libel which had appeared in the Morning Intelligencer, and of which Sir Hugh Palliser had complained to Admiral Keppel, should have been disregarded by him as beneath his notice.

The public papers were daily filled with letters and paragraphs relating to this unfortunate business: and the whole kingdom was put in a ferment about it. Admiral Keppel was, of all the flag-officers, most esteemed by the people, and also highly respected in the navy. To these circumstances it must be added, that his numerous great connections and political friends, who strongly ad-

hered to him on this occasion, made the step taken by Sir Hugh Palliser appear extremely unpopular; and that on the 30th of December, the Duke of Bolton, Admiral of the White, presented a very strong Memorial to the King, signed by himself and eleven other Admirals, relative to the conduct of the Board of Admiralty in this affair.

On account of the delicate state of Admiral Keppel's health, an act of Parliament was passed, before the Christmas recess, for having his trial on shore, instead of holding it on board of ship, as the former act had ordered. It accordingly commenced, on the seventh of January, 1779, at the Governor's house in Portsmouth. The Court-martial was composed of Sir Thomas Pye, Knt. Admiral of the White, President: Vice-Admirals Buckle and Montagu; Rear-Admirals Arbuthnot and Roddam; Captains Milbank, F. S. Drake, Parry, Bennet, Boteler, Moutray, Duncan, and Cranston. Judge Advocate, Mr. Jackson. The Court continued sitting until the 11th of February, when they pronounced sentence.

The acquittal of Admiral Keppel gave great satisfaction at Portsmouth; the town was illuminated: and the same spirit spread all the way to London, where the bonfires, illuminations, and other demonstrations of joy, exceeded all description. It would have been well, if this spirit had exhausted itself in harmless expressions of gladness: but the mob, getting drunk, committed the most shameful outrages. After showing great insolence, they proceeded to break the windows of several noblemen and gentlemen whom they suspected to be friends of Sir Hugh Palliser, forced their way into the houses of Lord Sandwich, Lord North, and others; greatly damaged the furniture, and were with much difficulty driven out by a party of the military. In Pall Mall, they completely demolished the house of Sir Hugh Palliser, who made his escape just in time to save his life. Such proceedings could bring honour to no party. The friends of Admiral Keppel carried every thing before them: and although most of them were in the party denominated the opposition, or the minority, they succeeded in procuring a vote of thanks of both Houses of Parliament to the Admiral. This honour was conferred unanimously by the House of Lords; and with only one dissenting voice in the House of Commons. The Lord Mayor and Aldermen of London also voted him the freedom of the city; which was, by their orders, presented to him in a box made of heart of oak.

A spirit of despondency was at this time evidently gaining ground in the nation, but it did not extend to our seamen; who asserted their superiority wherever they came in contact with their ancient rivals, as was apparent in the British, the American, and the West Indian seas. The defence of St. Lucia, by the joint exertions of Admiral Barrington, and Generals Grant and Meadows, displays conduct on the part of the commanders, and bravery on that of the officers and men, which were worthy of our brightest annals. At the close of this year, the present Lord Gardner, then captain of the *Maidstone* of 28 guns, took the *Lion*, a French ship of 40 guns.

It would be endless, however, to recapitulate achievements of this sort performed by our countrymen ; and it must suffice to observe that they every where, by sea and land, behaved in a manner that was honorable to the national character.

In 1779, Spain threw herself into the scale against Great Britain. The latter power lost several of her islands ; and her forces in North America made scarcely any progress, though they acted in affairs of posts with their usual spirit : while the garrison of Savannah, by its noble and successful resistance, " covered itself with glory." Down to this time, the provincials were little indebted to the co-operation of their new allies ; and though in this year the combined fleets insulted by their presence the coasts of England itself, they attempted no hostilities. If, however, this proved an inglorious and unfortunate year for Great Britain, yet was it signalized by numerous brilliant actions fought by the commanders of single ships. At this period, also, was decided the question of the right to search neutrals when under convoy, by the seizure of the squadron laden with naval stores, and bound for the ports of France, under the protection of the Dutch Admiral Count Byland.

Vol. V. displays the energies of the British character, and inspires us with elevated notions of human nature. Britain has lately been often reproached on account of the dominion which she exercises over the seas, but the parties accusing her little consider the costly sacrifices with which she has purchased her pre-eminence. The ocean has not witnessed, on the part of any nation, equal displays of heroism, skill, and perseverance ; and if her adversaries cannot shew a better title to the superiority which she claims, they must admit the validity of that which she is able to produce.

The year 1780 stands distinguished by the formation and failure of mighty plans on the part of the house of Bourbon, against the foreign possessions of England ; which embraced nothing less than the reduction of our principal West India islands, the annihilation of our armies in North America, the capture of New York, and the conquest of Canada. In the course of the same period, an awful visitation of Providence lays waste a considerable part of Jamaica and the whole of Barbadoes : the gallant Rodney is victorious over the Spanish fleet off Cape St. Vincent, takes seven ships of the line, and relieves Gibraltar : the armed neutrality is instituted, and obliges Britain to recede from her former principles in regard to neutrals ; and the capture of Mr. Henry Laurens, ambassador from congress to the United Provinces, brought to light an intercourse between the latter and the Americans, which determined this country to add one power more to the number



of its enemies. The war with the Dutch was soon followed by the capture of St. Eustatius; in which island, property to the amount of three millions sterling was found deposited: but, the capture of our homeward bound East and West India fleets, by the combined naval force of the enemy, was in itself a great blow, while it proved still more serious in its consequences, as it put a stop to a separate negotiation which was at the time carrying on with Spain through the intervention of Dr. Hussey, aided by Mr. Cumberland, and which was advancing very favourably till this event happened. This year is also rendered memorable by the unfortunate death of Captain Cook, the great circumnavigator; and it farther presents the first signal displays of that spirit, which distinguished through life the naval hero whose recent loss his country so deeply deploras. We mentioned this circumstance in our account of Mr. Charnock's life of Lord Nelson, Rev. for Feb. p. 169.

Of the year 1781, the most remarkable events are the captures of several Dutch settlements in the West and East Indies, the reduction of Tobago, and the recapture of St. Eustatius by the joint efforts of the Marquis de Bouillé and the Comte de Grasse. Pensacola yielded to the superior force brought against it by Spain, while its fall secured to that power the whole province of West Florida. Sir Henry Clinton, misconceiving the plans of the enemy, and apprehensive of a design on their part to attack New York, was too late in his preparations to relieve Lord Cornwallis; in consequence of which rardiness, that gallant commander was obliged to capitulate at York-Town. This signal discomfiture occasioned the close of the inglorious warfare prosecuted by the mother country against the colonies, and secured to the latter their independence. During this period, Sir Hyde Parker gained a hardly earned, but real, though disputed victory over the Dutch on the Dogger bank.

Captain Beatson introduces his account of this year with a just picture of the situation of the country considered as a belligerent:

‘ The events of the campaign this year were much diversified; and fortune, which appeared to smile on our operations at the commencement of it, frowned with horror at its conclusion: not that our exertions relaxed of their wonted activity, but there appeared a want of promptitude in seizing on the lucky moments, that sometimes present themselves in the affairs of war, and of improving them to our advantage. Such fortuitous circumstances, if not embraced in time, are not to be regained: and such neglects, trifling as they frequently appeared, seldom failed to operate strongly in favour of our opponents. These had now increased to such a formidable number, that when their combined strength is considered, it is amazing that Great Britain, without

without an ally to assist her, should have been able to make the gallant defence she did, even for one campaign. Besides her revolted colonies in America, she had now to contend, single handed, against three of the greatest maritime powers of Europe.

In the author's details of the expedition of Commodore Johnstone against the Cape of Good Hope, and of the capture of the Dutch East Indiamen in Saldanha bay, he introduces the following curious incident :

‘ A remarkable instance here occurred of the instability of human grandeur, of the miseries to which royalty, as well as the rest of mankind are frequently subjected, and of the ruin which generally accrues to weak states, from intimate connections with more powerful ones : a ruin which becomes still more inevitable and oppressive, if the stronger state is, under any pretence, allowed to gain a footing in the country of the weaker.

‘ A boat was seen rowing from the shore to the Commodore's ship, filled with people in the eastern garb, who, while yet at a distance, made the most humiliating signs of supplication. These were no less than the two Kings of Ternate and Tidore,\* with the princes of their respective families, who had long been subjected to the extreme of human misery, on account of those blessings and bounties of nature, which, unfortunately for them, had rendered their countries the objects of foreign ambition and avarice. These unhappy princes having upon some jealousy or suspicion been deposed by the Dutch, according to the harsh and cruel maxims which have ever disgraced their Government in the East, had, during several years, been confined within the limits of the parched and desolate island of Robin near this place. This dreary spot serves as a common prison for malefactors, and criminals of all ranks and countries, in their various settlements in India : and here, these Royal personages, with their families, were, without regard to sex or quality, obliged to herd, upon equal terms with the most profligate and abandoned of the human race. It appeared, that they had lately been removed upon some occasion from this island to Saldanha, and that, eagerly seizing the opportunity to escape from bondage and oppression, which the present moment of terror and confusion afforded them, they had fled for refuge and protection to the British squadron.’

In describing the conduct and sketching the character of the brave Elliot, during the siege of Gibraltar, the author has taken laudable pains, and has displayed considerable talents. The whole affords an interesting picture.

Events deeply affecting the interests of Great Britain are included within the limits of the year 1782. The Parliament, tardily yielding to public opinion, at length obliged those ministers to quit the helm, whose councils had been as pernicious as their measures had been weak. The losses of several

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\* Two valuable spice islands.

of our settlements in the West Indies and America were balanced by the glorious achievements of Rodney and Howe, in the splendid victory gained by the former on the 12th of April, and the gallant conduct of the latter by relieving Gibraltar in the face of the superior combined fleets of France and Spain. British fame also acquired at this time the highest lustre from the farther success of General Elliott, against an attack which, whether we regard the science displayed in forming the plan of it, or the extent of the force employed to carry it into effect, is without parallel in history.

The annals of naval adventures perhaps contain nothing so tragical as the series of misfortunes which befell the squadron under Rear Admiral Graves, consisting chiefly of the prizes taken on the 12th of April, and which set sail from the West Indies for England on the 25th of July. In the narrative of this calamitous voyage, the pen of the author appears greatly to advantage; and the particulars of the storm, with the detail of afflicting events which it occasioned, are extremely well stated; but we have not space to allow of our indulging the inclination which we feel to submit them to our readers.

The laurels of warlike triumph were now soon succeeded by the olive branch of peace; an event desired by all classes of people, and which the situation of affairs rendered it indispensable to press. The treaties underwent severe criticism in Parliament; and the powerful party, by which they were opposed, succeeded in rendering them unpopular. The conditions were no doubt humiliating; but it surely may be questioned whether this was to be attributed to the authors of the peace, or to the conductors of the war. It is not a little curious that the treaty, against the terms of which so great an outcry was raised here, was equally unpopular in France; and that M. de Vergennes was as much blamed in the French capital, as the noble author of the peace of Paris was censured in London. We live perhaps too near to the event, fairly to appreciate it: but we are inclined to think that posterity will acknowledge the merits of that arrangement, and the ability displayed in the negotiations which preceded it.

In concluding, we cannot but remark that the mind is lost in wonder while contemplating the mass of heroic deeds, and the number of brilliant exploits, which are collected together within the compass of these volumes. The author has executed a laborious task, and has established a claim to the acknowledgements of his country. He has manifested remarkable diligence in the collection of materials; though, as already observed, by a little more of labour in arrangement, the convenience of the reader would have been materially consulted, and the

the utility of the work increased. That this improvement was in the power of the author is evident from the able manner in which several parts of the work have been finished : but a generous public will be more disposed to cherish gratitude for the service which he has rendered, than to visit with severity the imperfections which may be discovered.

Some Scotticisms are visible in the style of these volumes.

ART. XI. *The Lay of the Last Minstrel*, a Poem. By Walter Scott, Esq. 4to. pp. 330. 1l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1805,

WE cannot communicate the design of this production with more distinctness and precision than in the author's own words :

' The poem now offered to the public is intended to illustrate the customs and manners which anciently prevailed on the borders of England and Scotland. The inhabitants, living in a state partly pastoral and partly warlike, and combining habits of constant depredation with the influence of a rude spirit of chivalry, were often engaged in scenes highly susceptible of poetical ornament. As the description of scenery and manners was more the object of the author, than a combined and regular narrative, the plan of the ancient metrical romance was adopted, which allows greater latitude in this respect than would be consistent with the dignity of a regular poem. The same model offered other facilities, as it permits an occasional alteration of measure, which, in some degree, authorises the changes of rhythm in the text. The machinery, also, adopted from popular belief, would have seemed puerile in a poem which did not partake of the rudeness of the old ballad, or metrical romance.

' For these reasons, the poem was put into the mouth of an ancient Minstrel, the last of the race, who, as he is supposed to have survived the Revolution, might have caught somewhat of the refinement of modern poetry, without losing the simplicity of his original model. The date of the tale itself is about the middle of the 16th century, when most of the personages actually flourished. The time occupied by the action is three nights and three days.'

On the *choice* of a subject which is presumed to sanction an irregular narrative and irregular rhymes, we cannot bestow our most cordial gratulations ; nor on scenes and incidents merely local, and on manners and customs which have been obliterated in the civilization of mankind, can we linger with the fondness of regret. Mr. Scott's poetical *projet* is, nevertheless, original ; and the plan and execution of his performance are alike intitled to a candid examination.

The minstrel is represented as neglected in his old age, and wandering on the banks of the Yarrow, when he is received

with hospitality by the Duchess of Buccleugh and Monmouth, and encouraged to sing to his harp a tale of six cantos. The lady of Branksome, an heroic dame, and conversant in magical arts, retires into her enchanted recess, and meditates, with determined purpose, to revenge the death of her beloved Lord Walter, who had fallen in a rencontre with the Kerrs of Cessford. Lord Cranstoun, who had espoused the interests of the latter, and had consequently incurred the displeasure of the high-minded lady, is the lover of her daughter Margaret. The fate of the Branksome family is faintly predicted in a mysterious dialogue between the spirit of the Mountain and the spirit of the River. The anxious widow dispatches her faithful Sir William of Deloraine to the Monk of St. Mary's Aisle, in the Abbey of Melrose, to procure an eventful book from the tomb of the wizard, Michael Scott. The Knight forthwith proceeds on his mission, and, with awful ceremony, obtains the volume. The hoary monk, by whose solemn aid this singular service is effected, dies on the following day; and Deloraine, scarcely recovered from his terror, returns with the prize. On his way, however, he encounters Lord Cranstoun, who had just met with Lady Margaret, in a neighbouring forest. The Knight, in spite of his valour, is unhorsed, and stretched bleeding on the ground: but his courteous adversary commands a malicious dwarf to convey him to the castle of Branksome, where his wounds are healed by the potency of spells. The elfin page, meantime, pursues his wicked devices; and while he assumes the form of the young heir of Branksome, decoys him into the hands of the English. The latter advance in hostile array, publicly accuse Deloraine of March treason, and require either that he should be delivered up to punishment, or that the young Lord should be detained as a prisoner, and an English garrison placed in the castle. It is at length stipulated that Musgrave and Deloraine shall decide the affair by single combat. The arrival of a numerous Scottish army, the proclamation of the truce, the festive intercourse of the opposite bands, and the circumstances of the appointed conflict, are duly rehearsed. Deloraine is presumed to have killed Musgrave, and to present the young heir to his mother. Cranstoun, however, by virtue of his dwarf and the enchanted book, had personated the knight, and, in consideration of this eminent service, obtains the mother's consent to wed her daughter. The merriment of the nuptial banquet is suddenly interrupted by darkness, which is as suddenly followed by dreadful thunder and lightning. Deloraine perceives the angry spirit of Michael Scott, and the chieftains undertake a pilgrimage to Melrose to appease his shade.

The song thus concluded, in pity to his age, and in consideration of his professional merits, the Duchess assigns to the Minstrel a neat and comfortable cottage beneath the tower of her castle.

Even from this outline, it is obvious that the only machinery which is employed is calculated to violate probability, without being necessary to the production of the principal events; that the marriage feast is a superfluous appendage to the story; and that the narrative is deficient in the coherence of its parts, and in that deep interest which arises from striking and pathetic incidents. In extenuation of these charges, we cannot admit that unity and consistency were objects of subordinate consideration, and that the old romancers indulged in much more wild and incongruous fictions: for he who professes to write a story, without much regard to the concatenation and character of its parts, renounces, in course, the praise which is due to skilful invention, and to the judicious management of his subject; and the copyist, who dispenses with the rugged and uncouth phraseology of his antient models, lies under no obligation to imitate the looseness or the extravagance of their narratives.

Yet, if such defects can be redeemed by much faithful and lively painting, and by the beauty of many detached passages, the *Lay of the Last Minstrel* will stand absolved before the tribunal of criticism. In the course of noticing his former labours\*, we suggested that Mr. Scott's own compositions are greatly superior to those which he has collected and edited with such minuteness of version and luxury of typography; and the present volume farther corroborates our opinion. Wherever the Minstrel appears in his own person, we are gratified with the ease and elegance of the language, and with the delicate appropriation of sentiment and costume. By transcribing the Introduction at length, we shall confer an obligation on such of our readers as have not already perused it:

‘ The way was long, the wind was cold,  
The Minstrel was infirm and old;  
His withered cheek, and tresses gray,  
Seemed to have known a better day;  
The harp, his sole remaining joy,  
Was carried by an orphan boy.  
The last of all the Bards was he,  
Who sung of Border chivalry;  
For, well-a-day! their date was fled,  
His tuneful brethren all were dead;

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\* See Rev. N. S. Vol. xliii. p. 21. xlv. p. 126. and xlviii. p. 196.

And he, neglected and oppressed,  
 Wished to be with them, and at rest.  
 No more, on prancing palfrey borne,  
 He carolled, light as lark at morn;  
 No longer, courted and caressed,  
 High placed in hall, a welcome guest,  
 He poured to lord and lady gay,  
 The unpremeditated lay;  
 Old times were changed, old manners gone,  
 A stranger filled the Stuarts' throne;  
 The bigots of the iron time  
 Had called his harmless art a crime.  
 A wandering harper, scorned and poor,  
 He begged his bread from door to door;  
 And tuned, to please a peasant's ear,  
 The harp, a King had loved to hear.  
 ' He passed where Newark's stately tower  
 Looks out from Yarrow's birchen bower;  
 The Minstrel gazed with wishful eye—  
 No humbler resting place was nigh.  
 With hesitating step, at last,  
 The embattled portal-arch he passed,  
 Whose ponderous grate, and massy bar,  
 Had oft rolled back the tide of war,  
 But never closed the iron door  
 Against the desolate and poor.  
 The Duchess \* marked his weary pace,  
 His timid mien, and reverend face.  
 And bade her page the menials tell,  
 That they should tend the old man well:  
 For she had known adversity,  
 Though born in such a high degree;  
 In pride of power, in beauty's bloom,  
 Had wept o'er Monmouth's bloody tomb!  
 ' When kindness had his wants supplied,  
 And the old man was gratified,  
 Began to rise his minstrel pride.  
 And he began to talk, anon,  
 Of good Earl Francis†, dead and gone,  
 And of Earl Walter‡, rest him God!  
 A braver ne'er to battle rode:  
 And how full many a tale he knew,  
 Of the old warriors of Buccleuch;

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\* Anne, Duchess of Buccleuch and Monmouth, representative of the ancient Lords of Buccleuch, and widow of the unfortunate James, Duke of Monmouth, who was beheaded in 1685.

† Francis Scot, earl of Buccleuch, father to the duchess.

‡ Walter, earl of Buccleuch, grandfather to the duchess, and a celebrated warrior.

And, would the noble Duchess deign  
To listen to an old man's strain,  
Though stiff his hand, his voice though weak,  
He thought even yet, the sooth to speak,  
That, if she loved the harp to hear,  
He could make music to her ear.

'The humble boon was soon obtained ;  
The aged Minstrel audience gained.  
But, when he reached the room of state,  
Where she, with all her ladies, sate,  
Perchance he wished his boon denied ;  
For, when to tune his harp he tried,  
His trembling hand had lost the ease,  
Which marks security to please ;  
And scenes, long past, of joy and pain,  
Came wildering o'er his aged brain—  
He tried to tune his harp in vain.  
The pitying Duchess praised its chime,  
And gave him heart, and gave him time,  
Till every string's according glee  
Was blended into harmony.

And then, he said, he would full fain  
He could recal an ancient strain,  
He never thought to sing again.  
It was not framed for village churles,  
But for high dames and mighty carls ;  
He had played it to King Charles the Good,  
When he kept court at Holyrood ;  
And much he wished, yet feared, to try  
The long-forgotten melody.

'Amid the strings his fingers strayed,  
And an uncertain warbling made—  
And oft he shook his hoary head.  
But when he caught the measure wild,  
The old man raised his face, and smiled ;  
And lightened up his faded eye,  
With all a poet's extacy !  
In varying cadence, soft or strong,  
He swept the sounding chords along ;  
The present scene, the future lot,  
His toils, his wants, were all forgot ;  
Cold diffidence, and age's frost,  
In the full tide of song were lost.  
Each blank, in faithless memory void,  
The poet's glowing thought supplied ;  
And, while his harp responsive rung,  
'Twas thus the LATEST MINSTREL sung.'

The beginning of the third Canto is finely animated :

'And said I that my limbs were old ;  
And said I that my blood was cold,

And



And that my kindly fire was fled,  
 And my poor withered heart was dead,  
 ' And that I might not sing of love ?—  
 How could I, to the dearest theme,  
 That ever warmed a minstrel's dream,  
 ' So foul, so false, a recreant prove !  
 How could I name love's very name,  
 Nor wake my harp to notes of flame !

In peace, Love tunes the shepherd's reed ;  
 In war, he mounts the warrior's steed ;  
 In halls, in gay attire is seen ;  
 In hamlets, dances on the green.  
 Love rules the court, the camp, the grove,  
 And men below, and saints above ;  
 For love is heaven, and heaven is love.'

When the listening ladies ' approved the Master of the Song,'  
 and inquired about his friends and family,

' In solemn measure soft and slow,  
 Arose a father's notes of woe.  
 ' SWEET Teviot ! on thy silver tide,  
 The glaring bale-fires blaze no more ;  
 No longer steel-clad warriors ride  
 Along thy wild and willowed shore ;  
 Where'er thou wind'st by dale or hill,  
 All, all is peaceful, all is still,  
 As if thy waves, since Time was born,  
 Since first they rolled their way to Tweed,  
 Had only heard the shepherd's reed,  
 Nor started at the bugle-horn.

Unlike the tide of human time,  
 Which, though it change in ceaseless flow,  
 Retains each grief, retains each crime,  
 Its earliest course was doomed to know ;  
 And, darker as it downward bears,  
 Is stained with past and present tears.  
 Low 'as that tide has ebb'd with me,  
 It still reflects to memory's eye  
 The hour, my brave, my only boy,  
 Fell by the side of great Dundee.  
 Why, when the volleying musket played  
 Against the bloody Highland blade,  
 Why was not I beside him laid !—  
 Enough—he died the death of fame ;  
 Enough—he died with conquering Græme.'

Harold's lay, in the sixth Canto, is impressive and pathetic:

' O listen, listen, ladies gay !  
 No laughty feat of arms I tell ;

Soft

Soft is the note, and sad the lay,  
That mourns the lovely Rosabelle.

—“ Moor, moor the barge, ye gallant crew!  
And, gentle ladye, deign to stay!  
Rest thee in Castle Ravensheuch,  
Nor tempt the stormy firth to-day.

“ The blackening wave is edged with white;  
To inch\* and rock the sea-mews fly;  
The fishers have heard the Water-Sprite,  
Whose screams forebode that wreck is nigh.

“ Last night the gifted seer did view  
A wet shroud rolled round ladye gay;  
Then stay thee, Fair, in Ravensheuch:  
Why cross the gloomy firth to day?”—

—“ ’Tis not because Lord Lindesay’s heir  
To-night at Roslin leads the hall,  
But that my Ladye-mother there  
Sits lonely in her castle-hall.

“ ’Tis not because the ring they ride,  
And Lindesay at the ring rides well,  
But that my sire the wine will chide,  
If ’tis not filled by Rosabelle.”—

O’er Roslin all that dreary night  
A wondrous blaze was seen to gleam;  
’Twas broader than the watch-fire light,  
And brighter than the bright moon-beam.

It glared on Roslin’s castled rock,  
It reddened all the corpse-wood glen;  
’Twas seen from Dryden’s groves of oak,  
And seen from caverned Hawthornden.

Seemed all on fire that chapel proud,  
Where Roslin’s chiefs uncoffined lie;  
Each Baron, for a sable shroud,  
Sheathed in his iron panoply.

Seemed all on fire within, around,  
Both vaulted crypt and altar’s pale;  
Shone every pillar foliage-bound,  
And glimmered all the dead-men’s mail.

Blazed battlement and pinnet high,  
Blazed every rose-carved buttress fair—  
So still they blaze when fate is nigh  
The lordly line of high St. Clair.

There are twenty of Roslin’s barons bold  
Lie buried within that proud chapelle;

Each one the holy vault doth hold—  
 But the sea holds lovely Rosabelle !  
 And each St. Clair was buried there,  
 With candle, with book, and with knell ;  
 But the Kelpy\* rung, and the Mermaid sung,  
 'The dirge of lovely Rosabelle.'

Having thus pointed to some of the merits of this poem, we must remark that the execution is not equally supported, but that the first two Cantos are superior to the remaining four ; that the measure is too frequently, and too abruptly, varied ; that the lines are often prosaic, feeble, and incorrect in metre and rhyme ; and that, though the whole furnish convincing evidence of facility in poetical composition, it also betrays many minor negligences, and much disregard of careful finishing. Such lines as the following are manifest violations of the harmony or of the dignity of poetic numbers :

' Unwillingly himself he addressed.'—  
 ' And he called on the spirit of the fell.'—  
 ' For, *at a word*, be it understood.'—  
 ' Whitslade the Hawk, and Headshaw came.'—

What shall we say of such a burlesque and grating nomenclature as *Watt Tynlunn, Todrig, Black John, Hairilue, Gramescleugh, Priestbaughswire, Priestbaugh Scrogg, &c.*?

The couplet

' Harried the lands of Richard Musgrave,  
 And slew his brother by dint of glaive'

smells strongly of Hudibras ;—while

' DIES IRÆ, DIES ILLA,  
 SOLVET SÆCLUM IN FAVILLA,'

would make a capital figure in Drunken Barnaby's Journal.

On some occasions, Mr. Scott is too fond of technical terms. *Buttress, plinth, and crypt*, should be banished from the dictionary of the Muses ; and he who is unskilled in heraldry and architecture will never comprehend the import of the ensuing description, though characteristically just :

' By a steel-clenched postern door,  
 They entered now the chancel tall ;  
 The darkened roof rose high aloof  
 On pillars lofty and light, and small ;  
 The keystone, that locked each ribbed aisle,  
 Was a fleur-de-lys, or a quatre-feuille ;  
 The corbells were carved grotesque and grim ;  
 And the pillars, with clustered shafts so trim,  
 With plinth and with capital flourished around,  
 Seemed bundles of lances which garlands had bound.'

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\* \* Kelpy, the Water Demon.'

The

The notes are copious and learned, but not always sufficiently illustrative of the text: the paper and type are also beautiful. We learn that a second and less expensive edition is already in circulation.

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ART. XII. *Miscellaneous Plays*, by Joanna Baillie. 8vo. pp. 458. 9s. Boards. Longman and Rees.

IN this volume, Miss Baillie has departed from the plan on which her preceding Dramas had been conducted\*, and has admitted a greater diversity of characters into each play. She still, however, announces her intention of pursuing her series according to her original design; and she says that the hope of having 'even but a very few of the pieces which she has offered to the public, represented to it with approbation, when some partiality for them as plays that have been frequently read shall have put it into the power of future managers to bring them upon the stage with less risk of loss than would be at present incurred, is sufficient to animate her to every exertion that she is capable of making.'

It has always appeared to us that our fair author has done wrong to her own powers in prescribing to them a system which is new and peculiar in some respects, and which in others partakes of the defects of the old moralities; instead of copying human life, and writing as good tragedies and comedies as she could possibly form after the best models. The result of her restricted efforts has generally been Mediocrity; and we can perceive, in the present volume, that she still adheres even unconsciously to her system, and gives a hardness to her portraits from which a freer observation of Nature would have preserved them. The practice of *keeping-down* the under characters of her plays has likewise accustomed her to a kind of flat dialogue, which is scarcely sufferable in the closet, and which could never be endured on the stage. Another consideration seems to have escaped her attention; that minuteness of detail is not compatible with successful representation; and many of her scenes are wire-drawn in a manner which would fatigue both the actor and the spectator. A play ought to differ considerably from a narrative: but some of Miss Baillie's pieces consist almost entirely of narration.

While perusing this as well as the former publication, we have more than once reflected that the author would have had a better chance of succeeding, had she written fewer plays. A selection of the best scenes from her tragedies and comedies, re-

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\* See Rev. Vol. xliii. N. S. p. 31.

spectively,

spectively, might have constituted a small number of good dramas: but at present the flat and unprofitable portions outweigh the good so much, that an impression of languor and weariness is the predominant sensation of the reader. This feeling is not to be imputed solely to the circumstance of reading these plays successively; for we have complied with the fair writer's request, and have perused them singly; yet we cannot discover the beauties which we would gladly find in them. We perceive, however, considerable powers, though (as we think) injudiciously directed. To create a new species of dramatic poetry is an object rather to be wished than attempted, by those who possess the finest genius: but to have produced the usual effect of good writing, by attention to the established rules and best models of the art, was perhaps attainable by Miss Baillie. It is evident, then, that her want of success, in offering her plays for representation, has been owing to the experiment; and that she has sacrificed unhappily at the altar of an unknown Muse.

The first play in this volume is intitled *Rayner*, and possesses so great a similarity in some passages to the German Dramas, that it required the previous assurance of the author to prevent suspicions of imitation. We are told, however, that Miss B. had read none of the German Dramatists, when this tragedy was written. The plot is very irregular; and though there are some touching passages, the whole wants elevation.—We give the following scene as a sample:

‘ACT IV.

*The inside of the Prison: Rayner and Elizabeth are discovered sitting sorrowfully by one another in earnest discourse.*

‘RAYNER. Thou sayest well, my sweet Elizabeth;  
In this I have against thy love offended.  
But in the brightness of fair days, in all  
The careless gaiety of unruffled youth,  
Smiling like others of thy sex, I loved thee;  
Nor knew that thou wert also form'd to strive.  
With the braced firmness of unyielding virtue  
In the dark storms of life—alike to flourish  
In sunshine or in shade.—Alas! alas!  
It was the thoughts of seeing thee—but cease!  
The die is cast; I'll speak of it no more:  
The gleam which shews to me thy wond'rous excellence  
Glars also on the dark and lowering path  
That must our way divide.

‘ELIZABETH O no! as are our hearts, our way is one,  
And cannot be divided. Strong affection  
Contentends with all things, and o'ercometh all things.

I will

I will unto thee cling with strength so terrible,  
That human hands the hold will ne'er unlock.

' RAYNER. Alas, my love! these are thy words of woe,  
And have no meaning but to speak thy woe:  
Dark fate hangs o'er us, and we needs must part:  
The strong affection that o'ercometh all things,  
Shall fight for us indeed, and shall o'ercome:  
But in a better world the vantage lies  
Which it shall gain for us; here from this earth  
We must take different roads and climb to it,  
As in some pitiless storm two 'nighted travellers  
Lose on a wild'ring heath their 'tangled way,  
And meet again.

' ELIZABETH. Ay, but thy way, thy way, my gentle Rayner—  
It is a terrible one.

Oh flesh and blood shrinks from the horrid pass!  
Death comes to thee, not as he visiteth  
The sick man's bed, pillow'd with weeping friends:  
O no! nor yet as on the battle's field  
He meets the blood warm'd soldier in his mail,  
Greeting him proudly.—Thou must bend thy neck,  
This neck round which mine arms now circled close  
Do feel the loving warmth of youthful life:  
Thou must beneath the stroke—O horrid! horrid!

' RAYNER (*supporting her from sinking to the ground*).

' My dear Elizabeth, my most belov'd!  
Thou art affrighted with a horrid picture  
By thine own fancy trac'd; look not upon it:  
All is not dreadful in the actual proof  
Which on th' approach frowns darkly. Rouse thy spirit;  
And be not unto me at this dark push  
My heaviest let; thou who should'st be my stay.

(*She groans heavily.*)

What means that heavy groan? Ill speak its meaning,  
And say, that thou to nature's weakness hast  
The tribute paid, and now wilt rouse thyself  
To meet with noble firmness what perforce  
Must be: and to a lorn and luckless man,  
Who holds in this wide world but thou alone,  
Prove a firm, gen'rous, and heart-buoyant mate,  
In the dark hour. Do I not speak it rightly?

' ELIZABETH. Thou dost, thou dost! if nature's weakness in me  
Would yield to the heart's will.

(*Falling on his neck in a burst of sorrow.*)

' *Enter* FATHER MARDONIO.

' MARDONIO. My children, ye have been in woeful conference  
Too long: chide not my zeal that hither brings me  
To break upon it. On you both be shed  
Heav'n's pitying mercy!

REV. MARCH, 1806.

X

' RAYNER.

' RAYNER. Amen, good Father ! thou dost call us children  
 With a most piteous and kindly voice :  
 Here is a daughter who in this bad world  
 Will yet remain to want a father's care ;  
 Thus let me form a tie which shall be sacred ;  
 (Putting Elizabeth's hand into Mardonio's.)  
 She has no parent.

' Enter KEEPER of the Prison.

What brings thee here ? we should be left in peace.

' KEEPER (to Rayner).

' I am by a right noble stranger urged,  
 Who says he has in many a rough campaign  
 Serv'd with your valiant father in the wars,  
 To let him have admittance to your presence.  
 Bertram conducts him hither.

' RAYNER. Serv'd with mine honour'd father ! and thus circum-  
 stanc'd,  
 Now comes to see his son ! Well, be it so :  
 This is no time for pride to winch and rear,  
 And turn its back upon the patt'ring hail,  
 Bearing the thunder's shock. Let it e'en be ;  
 Admit him instantly. (calling him back.)

———Nay, e'er thou goest,

What is he call'd ?

' KEEPER. The Gen'ral Hardibrand.

' RAYNER. An honour'd name.

(Exit Keeper.

Retire, my love : (to Elizabeth.)

I cannot bear to have thy woes exposed  
 Before a stranger's gaze.

(She retires with Mardonio to an obscure part  
 of the Prison at the bottom of the Stage.)

These thoughts are just and natural : but they "*keep the road-  
 way*;" while the versification wants melody, and in some lines  
 stands in great need of the file. We mention this defect be-  
 cause we are sure that it may be corrected ; for in other parts of  
 the piece, we meet with very sweet passages, such as the fol-  
 lowing on a lady's death :

' One lovely bush of the pale virgin thorn,  
 Beat o'er a little heap of lowly turf,  
 Is all the sad memorial of her worth ;  
 All that remains to mark where she is laid.' (P. 17.)

Of the Comedy, intitled *The Country Inn*, we cannot speak  
 highly. The characters are either tame or tiresome ; slender  
 interest is excited by the plot ; and we find but little way to  
 supply the place of interest. Among the *Dramatis Personæ*,  
 we observe 'Amaryllis,' a Poet, in direct opposition to the  
 sexual

sexual system of all Pastorals. We can see no good reason for this deviation from rule.

The last Tragedy in the volume, *Constantine Paleologus*, is written with more warmth and spirit. It abounds in noble sentiments, and is intended for a piece of considerable bustle: for the spectator would sit, during its performance, under a perpetual cannonade. We could not help smiling at the following directions for the Machinist, which

“ Speak plain cannon-fire, and smoke, and bounce.”

*Shakspeare.*

# ‘ ACT V.

‘ SCENE I. *An open space near the walls of the city, with half-ruin’d houses on each side, and a row of arched pillars thrown across the middle of the stage, as if it were the remains of some ruined public building; thro’ which is seen in the back-ground, a breach in the walls, and the confused fighting of the besieged, envelopped in clouds of smoke and dust. The noise of artillery, the battering of engines, and the cries of the combatants heard as the curtain draws up, and many people discovered on the front of the stage, running about in great hurry and confusion, and some mounted upon the roofs of the houses overlooking the battle.*’

The versification, however, is far from being exact; and the expressions are often trivial, even when the force of the sentiment ought to have elevated them. Thus, when the Empress Valeria is in great and natural perplexity, respecting the event of the siege, we have these lines:

‘ VALERIA. Thou dost impress me with a strange desire,  
As tho’ it were upon my mind impress’d  
By secret supernatural power. Methinks,  
Were this dread night with all its dangers past,  
I too would fain——Ha! hark! what noise is that?

*(Listening with great alarm.)*

Hark, hark! it is the sound of many sounds,  
Mingled and terrible, tho’ heard afar.’

This *Sound of many Sounds* is almost ludicrous; and Valeria quits the stage with a most familiar expression, beneath the dignity of tragedy;—‘ I’ll go myself!’—as if she could go without herself.

We shall, however, present our readers with a more ample specimen of the dialogue of this play;

‘ CONSTANTINE *(to Othus as he is about to go after the others).*

Wilt thou go also, Othus?

‘ OTHUS. Not if your highness does command my stay.

‘ CONSTANTINE. Ah, gentle friend! I do no more command!  
But this distresses thee. Well, gen’rous man,

Thou art commanded.

*(Pointing to a seat, and they both sit.)*



‘ Here, by thy friendly side,  
 I’ll give my heart a little breathing space ;  
 For oh ! the gen’rous love of these brave men,  
 Holding thus nobly to my sinking fate,  
 Presses it sorely.  
 From thee nor from myself can I conceal  
 The hopeless state in which I am beset.  
 No foreign prince a brother’s hand extends  
 In this mine hour of need ; no christian state  
 Sends forth its zealous armies to defend  
 This our begirded cross : within our walls,  
 Tho’ with th’ addition of our later friends,  
 I cannot number soldiers ev’n sufficient  
 To hold a petty town ’gainst such vast odds.  
 I needs must smile and wear a brow of hope,  
 But with thee, gentle Othus, I put off  
 All form and seeming ; I am what I am,  
 A weak and heart-rent man,—Wilt thou forgive me ?  
 For I in truth must weep.

‘ OTHUS. Yes, unrestrained weep, thou valiant soul  
 With many a wave o’er-ridden ! Thou striv’st nobly  
 Where hearts of sterner stuff perhaps had sunk :  
 And o’er thy fall, if it be so decreed,  
 Good men will mourn, and brave men will shed tears,  
 Kindred to those which now thou shed’st. Thy name  
 Shall in succeeding ages be remember’d  
 When those of mighty monarchs are forgot.

‘ CONSTANTINE. Deceive me not ; thy love deceiveth thee.  
 Men’s actions to futurity appear  
 But as th’ events to which they are conjoin’d  
 To give them consequence. A fallen state,  
 In age and weakness fall’n, no hero hith ;  
 For none remain behind unto whose pride  
 The cherish’d mem’ry of his acts pertains.  
 O no, good Othus, fame I look not for.  
 But to sustain in heaven’s all-seeing eye,  
 Before my fellow men, in mine own sight,  
 With graceful virtue and becoming pride,  
 The dignity and honour of a man,  
 Thus station’d as I am, I will do all  
 That man may do, and I will suffer all—  
 My heart within me cries, that man can suffer.

*(Starting up with vehemence, and holding up both hands firmly  
 clenched.)*

Shall low born men on scaffolds firmly tread,  
 For that their humble townsmen should not blush,  
 And shall I shrink ? No, by the living God !  
 I will not shrink, albeit I shed these tears.

‘ OTHUS To be in toils and perils, nay in sufferings,  
 With th’ applauding sympathy of men  
 Upon his side, is to the noble mind

A state of happiness beyond the bliss  
Of calm inglorious ease.

'CONSTANTINE. O no, good Othus! thou misjudgest of me.  
I would, God knows, in a poor woodman's hut  
Have spent my peaceful days, and shar'd my crust  
With her who would have cheer'd me, rather far  
Than on this throne; but, being what I am,  
I'll be it nobly.

'OTHUS. Yes, thou wilt be it nobly, spirit as brave  
As e'er wore Cæsar's name!

'CONSTANTINE (*smiling sorrowfully*).

'Yes, there is cause for me; there is good cause.  
But for those valiant men, link'd in my fate,  
Who have in other lands their peaceful homes  
And dear domestic ties, on whom no claim  
Lays its strong hold—alas! what cause have they?  
What is their recompense? Fame is not mine;  
And unto them——O this doth press my heart!  
A heart surcharg'd with many cares, and press'd  
With that besides, which more than all—with that  
Which I have wrestled with—which I have strove—  
With that which comes between me and myself—  
The self that as a Christian and a man  
I strongly strove to be——

'OTHUS. You have before some secret cause of trouble  
Hinted in broken words: will not your highness  
Unto a faithful friend——

'CONSTANTINE (*turning away from him*).

No, no, good Othus!

Sometimes I dream like a distracted man  
And nurse dark fancies. Power and lawless will—  
Defenceless beauty—Mahomet—Valeria—  
Shape out of these wild words whate'er thou wilt,  
For I can say no more.

'OTHUS. Alas, I know it all!

'CONSTANTINE. And yet why should it thus disturb my mind?  
A thought, perhaps, that in no other breast  
Hath any shelter found.—It is my weakness;  
I am ashamed of it.—I can look  
On my short-fated span and its dark bound:  
I can, God strength'ning me, my earthly task  
Close as becomes a king; and, being clos'd,  
To that which in this world's tumultuous stage  
Shall happen after it, I am as nothing.'

Our readers may now judge how far our strictures on the  
dialogue of these plays are well founded. We must confess  
that we see no prospect of brightening the chain of Miss B.'s  
dramatic efforts by lengthening it; and we would therefore  
recommend that there should be fewer links, more carefully  
polished,

polished, and that the fashion of the work, instead of attempting ambitious singularity, should be copied from some good old artist. It is perhaps impossible to effect more than our best dramatic writers have already accomplished: let this fair author, then, be contented with trying to imitate instead of deviating from the most successful efforts of human genius.

ART. XIII. *Letters to the Rev. Thomas Belsham*, on some important Subjects of Theological Discussion, referred to in his Discourse on Occasion of the Death of the Rev. Joseph Priestley, LL.D., &c. By John Pye Smith. 8vo. pp. 130. 3s. Boards. Johnson.

ART. XIV. *A Vindication of certain Passages in a Discourse on Occasion of the Death of Dr. Priestley*, and a Defence of Dr. Priestley's Character and Writings, in Reply to the Animadversions of the Rev. John Pye Smith. In *Letters to a Friend*. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. pp. 109. 3s. Boards. Vidler. 1805.

**I**N the department of theology, we are not only presented with the greatest possible contrariety of opinions, but we observe also a general astonishment excited among the advocates of different sects by this very phenomenon. By the force of early association, and by particular trains of thought and reflection, one man shall regard a certain creed as the essence of truth and the basis of sound morality; while another, contemplating the same object in a different light, and with sentiments running in an opposite direction, shall pronounce it to be the grossest error and impiety. It is curious to trace the progress of self-delusion, and the influence of a darling system even on enlightened minds; and to observe how dextrously the intellectual powers are employed in beclouding the judgment, and all the strength of reason is exerted in support of mere prejudice. Propositions, which are diametrically opposite to each other, cannot both be true; yet both find abettors equally zealous and conscientious. In Mr. Smith and Mr. Belsham, we have two gentlemen whose sentiments are as completely adverse to each other as the Northern and Southern Poles: but we cannot say that, in our estimation, they support the question with equal force of argument. We shall hope, however, in our report of the controversy, to do justice to both.

Mr. Smith is a calvinistic divine; who, offended at the pointed attack on Calvinism made by Mr. Belsham in his Sermon on Dr. Priestley's death\*, enters warmly into the defence of his

\* See Rev. Vol. xlv. N. S. p. 444.

favourite system; and we must admit that he displays great ingenuity in exhibiting the articles of his faith in such a manner as to screen them, as much as it was possible, from the objections of his adversary. Those features of Calvinism, which are regarded by many Christians as most odious and abhorrent, are veiled by a new mode of statement; and all the address of the theological dialectic is displayed, in obviating the difficulties with which this creed is encumbered in the contemplation of the moral philosopher. He ingenuously owns 'that his view of the subject is different from that which most Calvinistic writers have given;' so that Mr. Smith's creed may be called new-fashioned Calvinism. We shall give a part of it in its new dress:

'The infinitely glorious and amiable Being (God), in order to diffuse his own intrinsic excellence, has created a dependent system; and has subjected it to general laws of physical and moral order, laws supremely wise, good and holy, and, in the moral government, recognizing and directing the natural accountableness of intelligent creatures. The law of the moral system corresponds to the natural powers of its subjects. It only demands, to the full extent of those powers, attachment and obedience to a Being, whose claims of desert, from his amiableness, his beneficence, and his authority, are infinite and unalienable. A less demand, or any subsequent receding from its extent, can be demonstrated to be a subversion of the divine holiness, equity, benevolence, wisdom, and truth, or of all order and fitness in a moral system. Complete holiness, therefore, or obedience to the full extent of natural ability, is the perpetual and indispensable duty of every accountable creature: and, by a *sovereign* constitution of divine goodness, it is connected with complete happiness.

'All created existence is a concatenation of subordinate causes and consequences, originating in the will and power of God, constantly supported by him, and terminating in the most glorious display of His excellencies. That part of this great system of necessity which refers to the moral government of individual men, proceeds from an act of the divine will which we call predestination to life, or election to holiness and consequent felicity.

'There is no necessity for supposing a predestination to death, in the same sense as the former, that is to the means and the consequent end: For the occurrence of sin may be satisfactorily accounted for on other principles; though without pretending to the removal of every difficulty in a subject, the entire comprehension of which is probably unsuited to our present state and faculties.

'As it can be proved that the obligations of the creature to love and obey the blessed God are derived from the OBJECT, and are therefore INFINITE: so it is capable of strict moral demonstration that the violation of those obligations is *infinitely criminal*; that is, sin, with respect to its object, is an infinite evil.

'Sin, therefore, *DESERVES* an infinite, that is an everlasting, punishment. The nature of this punishment is not an arbitrary infliction,

tion, but a necessary consequence of moral evil. This proposition can be denied on no principles but such as are subversive of the government and the perfections of God; or principles virtually atheistical.\*

This system, which is pronounced by its learned advocate to be 'the perfection of reason, harmony, and moral beauty,' will appear to many of Mr. Smith's readers to be destitute of all the qualities which he assigns to it. Without involving ourselves in the dispute, we shall express a wish that Mr. Smith would consider how far it is strictly correct to estimate the criminality of sin solely with a reference to the object against whom the offence is committed. Must not also the nature and capacity of the sinner be taken into consideration? If all sin be infinitely criminal, one sin must be as atrocious as another; and where is the 'moral beauty' of this representation? Where, moreover, is the moral beauty of making everlasting punishments the *necessary consequence* of the sins of an imperfect being? Is it, we may ask, 'the perfection of reason' to describe the race of mankind as violating the law of God in a federal head, before they had any existence; and in obtaining righteousness by imputation, when virtue and vice are qualities of the mind and heart, and cannot be predicated but of the individuals themselves in whom virtue or vice shall be found? If, again, all mankind from eternity had been divided into two classes, Elect and Reprobate, how can it be said that "*God is not willing that any should perish*?" Mr. Smith, indeed, remarks 'that there is no necessity for supposing a predestination to death in the same sense as predestination to life;' but in the government of God, which he represents to be 'a concatenation of subordinate causes and consequences,' predestination in one

\* Divines of Mr. Smith's sect are incessantly urging the infinite evil of sin because it is committed against an *infinite* being: but they do not consider that, if all the actions of the creature are *infinite* because they must be viewed in reference to the Creator, then all the motions in inanimate nature, as well as all the actions of intelligent beings, are infinite in their consequences. It is singular that the very preacher, who asserts sin to be an *infinite* evil, should represent it as displaying the glory of God. Can it be thought honourable to the Almighty and the Allwise to permit an infinite evil? As well might we represent infinite truth as delighting in infinite error.

If sin originates, as Mr. S. asserts, in the *necessary* condition and circumstances of finite existence, can it, on his own ground, demand an infinite punishment? Can a being, who is stated to be *prone* to alteration and change, be intitled to an infinite punishment, should he accidentally alter or change? The argument of the Calvinist is, Man must sin because he is *finite*, and be punished everlastingly because God is infinite; what persuasive and captivating logic!!

case must include the means as well as the end; and his ingenuity, which we shall notice in our *Catalogue*\*, is ineffectually exerted to remove the obvious objection.

Mr. Belsham, had he met Mr. Smith on his own ground, and taken Calvinism on his own representation of it, might without fear have joined issue with his correspondent; he does not, however, choose particularly to discuss Mr. Smith's views of the subject; and to prove that he has not *caricatured* Calvinism, he appeals to that delineation of Calvinistic faith which is given in the well-known and approved manual of the doctrine, the Assembly's Catechism. The following passage will shew that Mr. Belsham has not been guilty of misrepresentation:

'The Assembly's Catechism teaches, in answer to the seventh question, that, "the decrees of God are his eternal purpose according to the counsel of his will, whereby for his own glory he hath fore-ordained *whatsoever* comes to pass."

'From this it evidently follows, that the fall of man is one of those events which was ordained for the glory of God.

'We are further taught, in reply to the sixteenth question, "that the covenant being made with Adam, not only for himself, but for his posterity; ALL mankind, descending from him by ordinary generation, sinned in him, and fell with him in his first transgression." Thus, for the glory of God, all mankind were predestinated to sin in Adam, and to fall with him.

'This celebrated symbol of the true calvinistic faith proceeds to teach us, in answer to the two succeeding questions, "that the fall brought mankind into an estate of sin and misery:" also, that "the sinfulness of that estate, whereunto man fell, consists in the guilt of Adam's first sin, the want of original righteousness, and the corruption of the whole nature, which is commonly called original sin, together with all actual transgressions which flow from it." Hence it follows, that God, for his own glory, has fore-ordained that all mankind shall be *guilty* of Adam's first sin, together with all actual transgressions that flow from it.

'Now comes the *bonne bouche*. The question next proposed is, "What is the *misery* of that estate, whereinto man fell?" And the answer to it is in these memorable words: "*ALL* mankind by the fall lost communion with God, are under HIS WRATH AND CURSE, and so made liable to all the miseries of this life, to death itself, and to the *PAINS OF HELL FOR EVER*."

'That is, God having from all eternity fore-ordained for his own glory that all mankind shall be guilty of Adam's first sin, for his own glory he hath further fore-ordained, that, by this fall they shall lie under his WRATH and CURSE, and be made liable to the pains of hell *for EVER!!!*

'To add to the horror of the picture, and to accumulate insult upon injury, it is further asked in the twentieth question, "Did God

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\* See our account of his Sermon on the permission of Sin.

leave *all* mankind to perish in the estate of sin and misery?" To which the answer subjoined is, that "God out of *mere* good pleasure, from all eternity, elected *SOME* to everlasting life."

'What then is God? It is truly replied, in one of the most concise and comprehensive definitions which was ever given, in answer to the fourth question of this Catechism: "God is a spirit, infinite, eternal, and unchangeable in his being, wisdom, power, holiness, justice, goodness, and truth."

'But what is the God of Calvinism? A gloomy arbitrary tyrant, a malignant omnipotent demon.

'Therefore the God of Calvinism is not the TRUE GOD, is not the God of Christians, is not the God and Father of Jesus, is not that God whose name is LOVE.

'This, Sir, is the system that I am accused of having *caricatured*. It is the system concerning which I have pronounced, and I now solemnly repeat the charge, that it is "a tremendous doctrine, which, had it really been taught by Christ and his apostles, their gospel might truly have been denominated, not the doctrine of peace and good will, but a message of wrath and injustice, of terror and despair." I have spoken of it, and while life and breath and intellect remain, I shall ever speak of it as "a rigorous, a gloomy, and a pernicious system," as "full of horror, as the very extravagance of errors," and as "a mischievous compound of impiety and idolatry."

We shall leave our readers to judge how far Mr. Smith has succeeded in freeing Calvinism from the objections which have been generally made to it, and how far Mr. Belsham is justified in that strong and pointed condemnation of it which he glories in reiterating.

Mr. Smith accuses Mr. B. of glaring inconsistency, when he asserts that Dr. Priestley was indebted to his early education among the Calvinists for some of his best principles and impressions. Indeed, he here thinks that he has his antagonist so completely in his power, that he capers and curvets round him with all the confidence of victory: but he finds his mistake when they meet, lance to lance. Because a strict and rigid sect may be found to nourish good principles, and to foster virtuous habits, are we to infer that the doctrines of that sect are all conformable to truth? Have not men in every age been seen, who have united irreproachable morality to the most indefensible creeds? It is happy for the world that the absurdities of system do not operate, as we might often suppose they would, on the heart: for if confirmed immorality were the universal concomitant of error, our present state would be miserable in the extreme. Whatever may be our opinion of the speculative and highly metaphysical tenets of Calvinism, it is but justice to this sect to observe that its members are in general exemplary for their piety and virtue; and this fact is sufficient to exculpate Mr. Belsham from the charge of inconsistency in bearing testi-

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mony to the good impressions which Dr. P. in early life received from them, though, in the same breath, he asserts the creed of the Calvinists to be the extravagance of error.

‘ If (says Mr. B.) I had maintained that Dr. Priestley owed his best principles and impressions to an early education in the *peculiar doctrines* of Calvinism, the triumph might have been just ; but as the case stands, had this gentleman allowed himself to reflect, that the *doctrine* of a sect is one thing, and its *discipline* another, and that all sects hold many important *practical principles* in connection with their own peculiar tenets, he would have seen that he needed not to have felt the anxiety which he expresses, for the credit and consistency of the author of the Elements of the Philosophy of the Human Mind.’

The subsequent part of the correspondence relates to a quotation or two made by Dr. Priestley from the Fathers, in his “History of Early Opinions concerning Jesus Christ,” and to Mr. Belsham’s account of the progress of the Trinitarian doctrine. Mr. B. allows that Mr. S. has detected a misconception of a passage cited by Dr. P. from Chrysostom: but he shews that Mr. Smith, in his explanation of the same passage, is equally mistaken. He has so far succeeded, also, in vindicating the character of his deceased friend, that Mr. Smith, much to his honour, has omitted in a new edition of his letters the heavy allegation against Dr. Priestley, “that implicit reliance cannot safely be placed on his representations, even in the cases of the plainest fact.”

On what Mr. S. terms the Unitarian Mystery, he endeavours to be jocular ; and, as Mr. B. might feel this to be the weak part of his system, he does not relish the pleasantry of his antagonist : but he makes the best reply in his power ; and we cannot help him to a better, were we ever so much disposed.

In the support of the Humanity of Christ, as maintained by Unitarians, the passage in Acts, ii. 22. is often quoted ; on which Mr. Smith makes this reflection ; ‘ How is this misunderstood passage hackneyed by Unitarians !’ We are not, however, informed in what respect it is misunderstood. The words are so plain as scarcely to be capable of two meanings.

This controversy is a complete specimen of theological thrust and parry. Each combatant shews himself adroit in the science of attack and defence : but it is difficult for the parties to keep their temper perfectly unruffled. We should be happy to find that mutual candour, if not truth, were promoted by such contests : yet we have too much experience of religious warfare to cherish so pleasing a hope.



## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1806.

## POETRY.

Art. 15. *The Victory of Trafalgar.* A Naval Ode in Commemoration of the Heroism of the British Navy. By Samuel Maxey, Esq. 4to. 2s. Johnson.

THE epithet *descriptive* belongs to this ode, though it has not been assumed by the author; and perhaps, indeed, Mr. Maxey has been too minutely circumstantial, and has thus diminished the poetical effect which it must have been his object to produce. Every particular of the well fought day is detailed in verse; from the telegraphic signal before the battle, "England expects every man to do his duty," to the pious thanksgiving to "Almighty God the giver of all victory," ordered by Admiral Collingwood at its conclusion;—the bearing down to engage—breaking the enemy's line—close action—the priming, loading, and firing—the blowing up of the Achille—the ineffectual attempt of two ships of the enemy to board the Temeraire—the striking of the flags of 19 French and Spanish ships to British valour, &c. To the particulars of the action, is added an account of the subsequent storm, and of the generous exertions of our tars in behalf of the vanquished. We copy three stanzas, to speak for themselves:

' Let signal now be made  
For closer action,' NELSON said;  
The signal flies.  
Scarce had these words his lips exprest,  
When the fell bullet pierc'd his breast,  
Convulsions soon the fatal wound attest,  
Prostrate he lies!

' Surgeons and friends attend,  
In vain their kind assistance lend;  
The ball's too deep:  
His eye no more emits its ray,  
His cheeks a pallid hue betray;  
In his attendants' arms he faints away,  
As round they weep.

' But e'er his eyelids close,  
While yet the gushing crimson flows,  
Which life supplies,  
A transient gleam of joy appears  
To animate him, when he hears  
What ships had struck; then, 'mid the sailors' cheers,  
Calmly he dies'

Mr. Maxey terms his ode 'an unostentatious effort in poetry;' and having been evidently composed in great haste, to meet the warm feelings of the public, we have not surveyed it with an eye of close criticism.

Art.

- Art. 16. *Nelson Triumphant*, A Poem. By T. Myers. 4to. 2s. 6d. Richardaon.

Some expressions in this poem bear a near resemblance to parts of "Nelson's tomb, &c." by Mr. Fitzgerald, noticed in a former Review: but we venture not to pronounce them plagiarisms; because it is very obvious that when two writers are employed on the same subject, each must recollect the prominent features of that subject; and when they paint the same action, they must often use the same words. If Nelson's achievements are to be exhibited, if his pursuit of the flying squadron of the enemy to the West Indies and his triumph at Trafalgar are to be described, "the torrid clime and the tainted gale" will be introduced in the first instance, and "shatter'd navies and the victor-ship" in the last: but when the descriptions continue nearly similar through four successive lines, as is the case at p. 11. the suspicion of plagiarism will attach.

Mr. Myers's line

"Brave Nelson sought those ships, but sought in vain," closely imitates Mr. Fitzgerald's

"Nelson has sought but long had sought in vain;"

And the following

"Britannia triumphs—but her Nelson's gone,"

is not unlike Mr. F.'s

"England's triumphant—but her Nelson dies."

The ensuing, however, no one will claim of Mr. Myers:

"Glorious his life in ev'ry stage has been,  
Yet "dust to dust" concludes the earthly scene."

- Art. 17. *Verses on the Victory of Trafalgar; and the Death and Funeral of Admiral Lord Nelson*. By the Rev. William Tremenheere, A. B. Late Chaplain of His Majesty's late Ship the *Valiant*. 4to. 1s. Faulder.

We wish to praise when the intention is commendable, but, in certain cases, it is impossible. Mr. Tremenheere is perhaps intitled to our respect as a man and as a clergyman: but as a poet we cannot say to him—"Well done."

- Art. 18. *The Fight off Trafalgar*. A descriptive Poem. By George David Harley, Comedian, &c. 4to. 2s. Longman and Co.

As we have before intimated, when a croud of poets are occupied in celebrating the brilliant fight off Trafalgar, and in offering the tribute of the Muse to the merits of the hero who gloriously fell in the arms of victory, coincidence of sentiment is in many respects so unavoidable, that the mere repetition of the same thoughts, or the use of the same epithet and expression, by several writers, will not subject them to the imputation of plagiarism. Mr. Harley, therefore, might have saved himself the trouble of the apology which he offers on this head. In his enthusiastic admiration of the gallant chief, none of his brother bards can surpass him: but the critic who expects the fire of genius to be chastened

chastened by taste, and to be subservient to correctness, will on several occasions be induced rather to sigh than applaud. Some of Mr. Harley's ideas are extravagant, and the effort at sublimity terminates in downright bathos. His muse is in such a violent hurry, that she will not stay to complete the sense of the very first couplet of the poem, which begins thus :

' To tell of the deeds British valour hath done,  
Were the sands of *her* ocean and the beams of *her* sun.—'

Had he given himself time, how easily would he have expressed his meaning,

' To tell of the deeds British valour has done  
Were to count ocean's sands or the beams of the sun.'

To represent the subsequent storm as 'the dirge of the heavens', expressive of 'the grief of the skies' at the fall of Nelson, is a species of poetic extravagance, which, however admired in the last age, will not be tolerated in the present. When we are informed respecting the hero, that 'his soul was a whole fleet,' Mr. Harley must forgive us if we compare his bombast to a line in Scriblerus,

"Himself an army and his spear a wood."

We cannot perceive the beauty of such couplets as the following :

' Lopp'd, batter'd and broke—in the life of a span,  
And a course which ne'er mortal more gloriously ran !'

' Then farewell our Hero ! the great and the good !  
The seas where he conquer'd, yet boast him in blood.'

The line

' From *our* seas flow the rivers that water *his* plains'

is not only obscure, but exhibits an inverted metaphor.

We shall transcribe a single stanza as no unfair specimen of the whole :

' The sculptor shall chissel with exquisite grace  
The strength of his soul and the fire of his face,  
The pillar shall rise, and the monument tell,  
How greatly he conquer'd—how gloriously fell !  
But mould'ring are all the vain efforts of art,  
The boast of all busts is a whole nation's heart !—  
Which to time's latest hour shall, to valour sincere,  
With its blood feed the laurel and furnish a tear,  
For the fight off Trafalgar.'

This is the burden of each of the 30 stanzas of which the poem is composed.

Art. 19. *An Essay on Man*, upon Principles opposite to those of Lord Bolingbroke ; in four Epistles. With a Preface and Notes. By W. Churchey. 12mo. pp. 115. 4s. Beards. Kirby.

We doubt not that this attempt, though extremely bold, is the offspring of good intention. Startled by the apparently dangerous tendency

tendency of some of the equivocal positions in Pope's celebrated *Essay on Man*, Mr. Churchey conceived the design of composing a similar poem on *evangelical* principles. The human species, however, may be treated in a physical or moral point of view ; and, in either case, the subject may, with sufficient propriety, be intitled ' an *Essay on Man*.' This expression, in itself sufficiently limited and humble, does not necessarily include the consideration of theological dogmas, nor even the pure precepts of the Gospel. We neither wish to blame Mr. Pope, because he did not connect with his theme the doctrines of Christianity, nor are we inclined to censure Mr. Churchey, because he thinks it proper to celebrate in verse his views of revealed religion : yet the formal contrast of his pious effusions, with the splendid ethics and inimitable numbers of the bard of Twickenham, reminds us of the imprudent desire of certain puritanical preachers, who adapted their devotional strains to favourite national airs of a very opposite complexion.

Having thus stated our dissent to the general scheme of the present essay, we hope that we shall be excused from entering on the contrarieties of sentiment suggested by the perusal of the rival poems. The prosecution of such a task would necessarily involve much tedious discussion of profound but hackneyed topics, in the consideration of which the most acute and the most upright of men are not exempt from error. Besides, the voice of the public has already appreciated the merits of these very unequal performances. The fame of the first can die only with the language in which it is written, while that of the second is already hastening to oblivion.

While we allow that Mr. Churchey's verses sometimes aspire to the point and smoothness of their prototypes, we must likewise acknowledge that they seldom awake sublime emotions, or melt us into tenderness. The illustrations are neither copious nor happy ; and the author more frequently appears in the character of a polemical divine than in that of an enlightened philosopher, or of the nursling of genius.—The principal object of his poem is to deduce human happiness from the original depravity of mankind, the consequent atonement of Christ, and the vital impulses of the spirit of grace. In pursuance of these views, the first epistle opens with an address to Mr. Wilberforce, which is *followed* by an invocation to the Deity. The search for truth, as it is revealed in the Scriptures, and contrasted with the uncertainty and futility of scientific inquiry, is then recommended as our principal concern ; and the doctrine of original sin is maintained, and objections to it are answered. In the second epistle, various arguments are adduced in support of the fall of man, and in opposition to several of Pope's favourite maxims. The third exhibits a contrast between the highest efforts of human virtue and the divine character, as exemplified in the life of Socrates and of Jesus Christ. The eloquence, miracles, and atonement of the Saviour, the progress of sin, and the doctrine of universal salvation, are next specially commemorated. The vanity of knowledge and talents, when opposed to the Christian scheme of redemption, the corruptions of the church, the subtile and precarious nature of metaphysical and physical disquisitions, a confutation of Locke's theory

of innate ideas, a description of the millenium, and a summary of the Gospel system, form the principal contents of the remaining epistle.

In Mr. Churchey's train of sentiment we cordially participate, when he reprobates the continuance of the slave-trade, the indiscriminate use of capital punishments, and the gloomy creed of Calvin: but if all men be transgressors from the womb, we see not why children should be absolved from the general curse. The author's humanity, however, thus pleads in their favour:

- \* If *Herod's* murder of the *Babes* decreed,  
Why do all execrate the bloody deed!  
Or, if there was no *Innocence* in them;  
Why does the *Scripture* such a scene condemn!  
When infants *die*, their Angels wing them round!  
No vicious spirits haunt the hallow'd ground!  
While infants *live*—such *Innocents* you see—  
Their Saviour points through *them* at you and me—  
“ Here, learn of these, except you *such* become,  
In no wise hope to reach my Father's home!”  
Blessing, He took them in his Arms, and press'd  
The *smiling Patterns* to his gracious *Breast*!  
Let not Dominicans *disfigure* truth—  
The God that *made* us, bless'd us in our youth;  
To *Calvin* leave the blasphemy of *Fate*,  
The *Dawn of Grace* illum'es our infant state;’ &c.

At what precise period of life, then, does the original taint become manifest?

The notion of the prior lapse of human souls, before their incorporation, likewise seems to have charms for Mr. Churchey's capacious faith. Were his charity equally ample, we are inclined to think that he would have censured Locke, Priestley, and Voltaire, more in the spirit of Christian meekness:

- \* If *Locke* be right, Farewell to Joys above!  
Farewell to fancies of celestial love.  
If *Locke* be right— Ideas such as these,  
“ The Fear of Death, and hope of endless ease,”  
Which from our earliest days *innate* we feel,  
Are but the bubbles of fanatic Zeal;’ &c.
- \* O! *Priestly*! poignant were the pangs of woe  
You oft' have felt, through varied life below!  
*Ideas* fled, like arrows, unconfined,  
Distinct from *Matter*, link'd alone to Mind!  
And when you *die*, the *livelier* pains you'll feel,  
Unless *Forgiveness* blunts their pointed steel.”
- \* The Robe of *Ridicule* was meekly borne,  
And the arch *Leer* of that (*surviving*) *Scorn*,  
Which once the visage of “ the *Wretch*” *Voltaire*  
Display'd—before he felt the *last despair*!”

Both the text and the notes are disfigured by the too frequent recurrence of capitals and italics; and we occasionally meet with such inaccurate rhymes as *tame* and *lamb*, *zone* and *own*, *food* and *wood*, *ap-pear* and *bear*, *explained* and *band*, &c.

On the whole, we admire Mr. Churchill's faith more than his liberality, and his sincerity more than his poetry.

Art. 20. *Trafalgar: a Rhapsody on the Death of Lord Nelson.*  
By Robert Bellew, Esq. of the Middle Temple. 4to. 2s. 6d.  
Ginger.

Imagination sports in this rhapsody. First, old Oceanus wets his beard with tears for the death of the hero, and "pops up his head" above water to communicate the news to Britannia:

'We've seen your sons snatch Victory's bright prize,  
We've seen Horatio wafted to the skies!'

Next the sea nymph Panopea relates the particulars:

'I saw aloft the wily Gall  
With fatal tube direct the ball,  
I saw, I saw, great Nelson fall!'

She does more; she informs us of the future destiny of the hero, viz. that he will be our polar star, that he will lead the winds, and guide our navies.

When Panopea ends, the Sisters of the main and the Tritons think it high time for them to *put in their oar*: but Panopea, in a prodigious hurry to impart all that she knows, commits the shocking mistake of using *bumble* as a rhyme to *tremble*: which is enough to make the critic *tremble* with anger, and let the pamphlet *tumble* out of his hands.

Art. 21. *Victory in Tears; or the Shade of Nelson.* A Tribute to the Memory of that immortal Hero who fell in the Battle of Trafalgar, Oct. 21, 1805. 4to. 2s. 6d. Murray.

More address is displayed in this poem, than in any of the tributary effusions which the votaries of Apollo have presented with such profusion at Nelson's shrine. The poet, with great felicity, introduces the shade of the Hero appearing to his Muse, as she was meditating the "loud lament;" and, in dignified language, commanding her to rhy on her tears:

'No! let each eye in tearful tribute flow,  
Let each sad aspect wear the public woe;  
Let Glory's blaze subside to Mourning's gloom,  
And every Virtue weep o'er NELSON's tomb!

'Twas thus, the Muse, as powerful feelings press'd,  
Obey'd the impulse of her labouring breast;  
When lo! before her eye, in light array'd,  
A vision rose—'twas valiant NELSON's shade.  
Warm as in life, the awful warrior seem'd,  
And round his brow a wreath of glory beam'd;  
Illustrious scars his honours here express'd,  
And Death's last wound shone star-like on his breast;

Bright as the sun, his face, his form, his voice,  
 And as the spirit, heaven's chosen, from on high,  
 To bear him, he cried, "forbear the mournful day,  
 Nor steep in tears the trophies of the day;  
 To strains of rapture wake the wondrous lyre,  
 Let sounds of joy Britannia's breast inspire;  
 Pleas'd let her twine the wreath for Valour's head,  
 And in her living heroes prize the dead.  
 Bid her no more for NELSON fruitless grieve,  
 Who, that could die like him, would wish to live?  
 Who that by death, glory's crown, and Glory's eye,  
 Like him could live, that would not wish to die?  
 Heaven but indulg'd the boon his soul desir'd,  
 And gave the glorious fate his fame requir'd.  
 Tell her, since first, in early fancy fram'd,  
 Ambitious to imitate his kindling breast inflam'd,  
 'Twas all his wish—his hope—his pride—to prove,  
 His first—last passion, was his Country's love;  
 To hear awhile her praise—attract her eye,  
 And in her sacred cause—victorious die.

At 210, we are shocked with the *images* of Nelson pronounced as one syllable: but at the conclusion the poet recompenses us for this, and every other defect, by the happy and to us original thought of inviting Scotia and Erin heartily to combine with Albion, and thus to become *the three-decker of the main*.

At 223, *Two-Pairt, son the Death of Lord Nelson*, and *the Middle Temple*:

At 261, while we are disappointed his profession, we should have concluded that he was a clergyman from his ode smelling so much of what is called *the pat of a shop*. The first part thus concludes:

The gracious God, who gave him to the world,  
 To guard the assertors of a Saviour's cause  
 And by his hand his vengeance hurl'd  
 On all who scorn'd his laws;  
 Cried, with a voice that shook the central sun,

"Receive thy meed—thy duty done."

And call'd him from the earth to join

Th' angelic warriors of the hosts divine;

Where, amid his footstool ranged a living zone,

They guard the eternal throne.

Britons are admonished in the Antistrophe and Epode, which terminate the second part, to guard the Hero's hallow'd shrine; for

'Whilst sacred 'tis preserv'd, his Native Land

Shall wield the sceptre of command;

But if profan'd the hallow'd spot,

Then, Britons! know your just, but dreadful lot:

The Land that chain'd Old Ocean to her shore

Shall sink, and be no more.

If Nelson's remains be our Palladium; Britons no doubt will defend his tomb.

Art. 23. *Palmyra, and other Poems.* By T. L. Peacock. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Richardsons. 1806.

Fenced and barricaded as Helicon is, according to the report of some persons, against the approach of the moderns,—and as we have indeed melancholy evidence in the quantity of trash, called poetry, with which we are incessantly pelted,—a few individuals occasionally contrive to clamber over the inclosure, and to get a sip from the sacred fountain. Mr. Peacock appears to be one of this favored minority; and even those who are somewhat fastidious will receive pleasure from the vigor of his conceptions, the elegance of his expressions, and the harmony of his numbers. *Palmyra*, whose splendid ruins of white marble, in the midst of an extensive sandy desert, present so striking a spectacle to the traveller, illustrative of the transitory nature of human glory, is a fine subject for a poem; and if our expectations were raised on this occasion, we are bound in gratitude to Mr. P. to report that we were not disappointed. With a boldness and a fire which belong to the Ode, he sings the fate of this once magnificent city, its rulers and inhabitants, and introduces those awful reflections, which are a lesson to the proud and a consolation to the humble. Notes, illustrative of the allusions in the text, are subjoined; but we think that, though Mr. P. can adduce good authority for the omission, the names of the persons, viz. of *Zenobia*, *Longinus*, &c. to whom he refers, should have been woven into the stanzas appropriated to them; for, as Dr. Johnson observes, “An Epitaph and a history of a nameless hero are equally absurd, since the virtues and qualities so recounted in either are scattered at the mercy of fortune to be appropriated by guess. The name, it is true, may be read on the stone; but what obligation has it to the poet, whose verses wander over the earth, and leave their subject behind them, and who is forced, like an unskilful painter, to make his purpose known by adventitious help?” This remark on the omission of the name in an epitaph applies also to other poems. We mean not to discourage the addition of explanatory notes: but authors should consider that poems, and odes in particular, are intended for recitation, and that the necessity of illustration should be sedulously avoided. The bard amply avails himself of the scanty records respecting *Palmyra*, but the name of its celebrated queen *Zenobia* never occurs in the whole ode.

A priest of the Sun, to whom the great temple of *Palmyra* was dedicated, is made in the spirit of poetry to foretell its subversion by the army of Aurelian. Anguish, supplication, and despair are finely blended in his address to the God of Light. We transcribe the concluding stanzas of this prophetic effusion, followed by the poet's reflections:

“Alas! in vain, in vain we call!  
The stranger triumphs in our fall!  
And FATE comes on, with ruthless frown,  
To strike *PALMYRA*'s splendor down.  
Urg'd by the steady breath of TIME,  
The desert-whirlwind sweeps sublime,



The eddying sands in mountain-columns rise :  
 Borne on the pinions of the gale,  
 In one concentr'd cloud they sail,  
 Along the darken'd skies.

It falls ! it falls ! on TREDMOR's walls  
 The whelming weight of ruin falls !  
 Th' avenging thunder-bolt is hurl'd,  
 Her pride is blotted from the world,  
 Her name unknown in story :  
 The trav'ler on her scite shall stand,  
 And seek, amid the desert-sand,  
 The records of her glory !

Her palaces are crush'd, her tow'rs o'erthrown,  
 Oblivion follows stern, and marks her for his own !<sup>20</sup>

• How oft, the festal board around,  
 These time-worn walls among,  
 Has rung the full symphonious sound  
 Of rapture-breathing song !  
 Ah ! little thought the wealthy proud,  
 When rosy pleasure laugh'd aloud,  
 That here, amid their ancient land,  
 The wand'rer of the distant days  
 Should mark, with sorrow-clouded gaze,  
 The mighty wilderness of sand ;  
 While not a sound should meet his ear,  
 Save of the desert-gales that sweep,  
 In modulated murmurs deep,  
 The wasted graves above,  
 Of those who once had revell'd here,  
 In happiness and love !

• Short is the space to man assign'd  
 This earthly vale to tread ;  
 He wanders, erring, weak, and blind,  
 By adverse passions led.  
 Love, the balm of ev'ry woe,  
 The dearest blessing man can know ;  
 JEALOUSY, whose pois'nous breath  
 Blasts affection's op'ning bud ;  
 Stern DESPAIR, that laughs in death ;  
 Black REVENGE, that bathes in blood ;  
 FEAR, that his form in darkness shrouds,  
 And trembles at the whisp'ring air ;  
 And HOPE, that pictures on the clouds  
 Celestial visions, false, but fair ;  
 All rule by turns :  
 To-day he burns  
 With ev'ry pang of keen distress ;  
 To-morrow's sky  
 Bids sorrow fly  
 With dreams of promis'd happiness.

' From the earliest twilight-ray,  
 That mark'd CREATION's natal day,  
     Till yesterday's declining fire,  
     Thus still have roll'd, perplexed by strife,  
     The many-clashing wheels of life,  
 And still shall roll, till TIME's last beams expire.  
 And thus, in ev'ry age, in ev'ry clime,  
     While circling years shall fly,  
 The varying deeds that mark the present time  
     Will be but shadows of the days gone by.'

The other pieces are of various kinds; and though we cannot afford space distinctly to notice them, we shall observe, in general, that they prove the author to have some conception of the discriminating properties of true poetry: while the difference of the metres in which they are conveyed shews the facility with which he composes.

Art. 24. *Nelson, an Elegy.* 4to. 1s. Johnson.

These verses may help to swell the crowd of offerings at Nelson's tomb, but we cannot allow that they display any brilliant poetical merit. They are rather manufactured than inspired, and unfortunately remind us of something better than themselves.

' Nile's seven *loud* mouths his might in war enforce  
 Where *fenced* navies felt his vengeful arm;  
 Where art and science strove to stop his course,  
 Forming a *fence* the daring might alarm.'

On this stanza, we shall remark that *loud* is not appropriate to the mouths of the Nile; that the French fleet, moored in the bay of Aboukir, could not be called a *fenced* navy; or, if fenced, it could not be said to *form a fence*. It cannot be at once the object *fenced* and *fencing*.

Art. 25. *Nelson's Tomb*, inscribed to the Army, Navy, and Volunteers of the United Kingdom. 8vo. 6d. Hatchard.

Soldiers and Sailors are not supposed to understand all the *dressing* which is required in the Corps of Parnassus; and though Poetry be not the first class, they will not dislike it if the subject shews the writer to be a *hearty fellow*. The author of 'Nelson's Tomb' may also pass muster among the Volunteers; who will be reminded of the hymns and spiritual songs which they learned in the nursery, by the following stanza:

' Thus wept, thus honour'd in his grave,  
 Now Nelson sleeps—yet, Britons, know  
 'Twas Heav'n the power to Nelson gave,  
 'Twas God, through him, subdu'd the foe.'

No particular respecting the procession and funeral is omitted; not even *Dust to Dust*.

Art. 26. *A Sublime Monody, sacred to the Memory of the Illustrious Naval Hero Lord Viscount Nelson, &c. &c.* By Joshua West. 8vo. 1s. Kirby.

We have not heard whether, amid all the late changes of Administration, and the *turnings-out* and *turnings-in* of placemen and pensioners, any alteration is likely to be made in the ancient and honorable office of Poet-laureate—to the Bellmen. If, however, this should be the case, and Mr. West should be a candidate for this 'sublime' situation, we think that we may cheer him with hopes of success; for he would probably have as many votes as—aye, verily, we believe, as many votes as there will have been readers of his '*Sublime Monody*!'

Art. 27. *A Monody to the Memory of the Right Hon. Wm. Pitt*: inscribed to his surviving Friends. 4to. 2s. Stockdale.

An enthusiastic admirer of the late Minister here attempts, in flowing verse, to do justice to his character. Among the predominant features of this statesman's public life, the Muse recounts his measure for the liquidation of the National Debt: but we are not told, as we ought to have been, that this plan, which obtained for Mr. Pitt such universal credit, was originally suggested by the late Dr. Price.—We would not detract from the merit of the son of the illustrious Chatham: but we cannot regard his death as an incalculable misfortune, nor 'See in his fate the doom of half mankind.'

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 28. *The United Gospel; or Ministry of our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ*, combined from the Narrations of the Four Evangelists. By R. and M. Willan. 3d Edition, with many additional Notes and Observations. 8vo. 6s. Boards. W. Phillips.

Various harmonies of the Gospels have been attempted, but to every scheme objections have been offered. It should seem from St. Luke's preface to his Gospel, that the occurrences of our Lord's ministry were related by him in the exact order of events: and yet it is not easy to make the other Gospels conform to his standard. Some critics, dissatisfied with all harmonizing attempts, have reprobated the plan altogether: but whatever obstacles may obstruct its execution, we cannot be surprized that attentive readers of the N. T. should be desirous of reducing the sacred histories of our Saviour's life to one connected narrative. Messrs. Willan confess that, in the execution of their undertaking, difficulties occur with respect to the order and arrangement of facts; they think, however, that they have obtained some success by not taking a favourite evangelist, but by considering that more attention is due to one Evangelist than to another at particular periods of our Lord's ministry.

Matthew mentions several circumstances about the time of its commencement, which are not noticed by the other three. Mark gives afterwards the most exact account of the transactions in Galilee. Luke enlarges upon the events and discourses which occurred in the journey of Jesus Christ through Samaria and Judea, during the latter part of his ministry. John is most minute in relating what happened at Jerusalem, at the time of public festivals; and has little in common with the rest.

On these observations we have founded the general arrangement of incidents, not following any Evangelist throughout, but passing from

from one to another, as the order of narration seemed to require. The peculiar advantages of this method are, that it occasions the fewest possible transpositions in any of the gospels; that it coincides with the views which each Evangelist might have in enlarging upon particular subjects or periods of the ministry; lastly, that it is in itself a series of incidents, for in those parts of the gospel where the narrative is ample and studiously circumstantial, time, place, and succession, which must suppose will be defined with the greatest exactness.

Reasons are assigned for the Evangelists not having made more order and chronological exactness their chief object, and the authors suppose, from an attentive study of their gospels, that the manner of detailing events by the sacred historians will be better understood by attending to these observations.

I. Circumstances are often joined together because they happened at the same place, though not at the same time. Mat. ch. ix. &c. to

II. Several facts happening near at the same time, are put down without regard to precedence, as in Mat. ch. xii. and ch. xviii. in the op such occasions, gives the general expression, *et cetera*, &c.

III. Circumstances relating to the same person or subject are put together, which, in strict propriety with regard to time, should have been separated: as Levi's call, the feast at his house, and what happened in consequence of it.

Thus also Mark vi. the circumstances of John's imprisonment and death are related at the same time.

IV. Other circumstances are combined on account of their analogy, without reference to time or place. Mat. viii. 18. Luke ix. 57, &c.

V. Two similar incidents, though occurring at distinct times, are narrated by different Evangelists, with precisely the same circumstances. Thus our Lord's remarks after casting out a dumb demon, Mat. xii. 25. are transferred by Luke (vi. 16.) to another miracle of the same kind.

The first visit to Nazareth, as described Luke iv. 15. is omitted by the other Evangelists: but they have mentioned the very same circumstances in another journey to that city a considerable time afterwards.

VI. Sometimes a continued series of historical narration is given, and the doctrinal part delivered separately, when in strict propriety they should have been intermixed. This is frequently done in Matthew's gospel.

We must leave these remarks to speak for themselves. The Gospel history is here considered as divided into five parts. I. History prior to our Lord's public ministry. II. First year. III. Second year. IV. Third year. V. Transactions between our Lord's Resurrection and Ascension. To the Harmony, some short explanatory notes are subjoined, which appear to be judicious.

Art. 29. *Exercise of Piety*, for the Use of enlightened and virtuous Christians. By G. J. Zollikofer, Pastor of the Reformed Church at

at Leipzig. By James Manning, Pastor of the United Congregation of Dissenters at Exeter. 2d Edition. 8vo. pp. 285. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1805.

In M. R. Vol. xx. p. 164. we announced the first edition of this useful work, and explained the motive which induced the respectable translator to give the devotional Exercises of this celebrated German divine in an English dress. We are not surprised that enlightened and virtuous christians should express their approbation of them, by calling for a second edition, which is considerably enlarged. Besides a sketch of the author's life, extracted from Mr. Tooke's preface to his translation of Zollikofer's Sermons, (see M. R. Vol. 48. N. S. p. 168.) additional reflections on the following subjects are inserted:—on Ourselves—on God as our Father—on the care which God takes of mankind—on Jesus Christ and christianity—on Immortality—on the Love of labour—on the blessing and advantages of Christianity—on doubts in religion—on contentment—on preparation for eternity—on happiness and misery—on the fear of death—on the Lord's day.

As a manual of devotion, this performance will be highly satisfactory to the serious christian.

#### POLITICS.

Art. 30. *The true Origin of the present War betwixt France and England; with Observations on the Expediency and Advantages of an immediate Peace.* Second Edition. 8vo. Pamphlet; printed at Halle. 1805. London, sold by Budd, Jordan, Ogle, &c. Price 1s. 6d.

If the present writer be an Englishman, and sincerely wishes to promote the interest of his country, he has adopted a singular measure for the accomplishment of his design. Without introducing any palliating circumstances in our favour, we are accused, *roughly* accused of being the sole authors of the present war; and, to accelerate the return of peace, our situation is delineated in the most gloomy colours. Is it the part of a friend to inform the enemy where we are most vulnerable; or will he be disposed to peace, by being assured that we are dispirited and more than half subdued? We should expect the true advocate for Britain to take other ground, and to employ other arguments. It is bootless now to revert to the causes of the war: but, if they are to be discussed with a view to peace, both sides of the question should be fairly stated, which this writer has not done. When he wrote, the present change in Administration had not taken place: but he predicts a change as necessary for the salvation of the country, and represents that such a peace is attainable as would be advantageous to England and France. He thinks, however, that a commercial arrangement between the two countries would be impracticable, because the benefit of such a measure would lie wholly on the side of England. On the whole, this pamphlet "comes in a questionable shape," and will be perused with suspicion on this side of the channel.

Art. 31. *To your Tents!* An Address to the Volunteers of the United Kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland. By the Rev. Matthew

Matthew Wilson, A.M., Curate of Crayford in Kent. 8vo. 6d. Parsons and Son.

This patriotic address is calculated to rouse "every man to do his duty," to nerve the arm of Britons to resist Invasion, and to excite them to a vigorous and unanimous defence of those civil and religious blessings which distinguish their native land. It was delivered at the Drum Head to a Regiment of Volunteers, when going on a fortnight's duty.

Art. 32. *Thoughts on the present Administration.* By an Old Whig. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Budd.

That our situation is unprecedented in any former period of our history; that the state of Europe is completely changed; that our difficulties are great; that our danger is imminent; and that the nation requires a combination of talents and patriotism to extricate us from our present embarrassments, and to obtain for us the blessings of security and peace; are truths about which there is little occasion for controversy. It becomes necessary that we should summon resolution to contemplate naked facts; and that we should meet the emergencies of our case with wisdom, temper, and firmness. After the disasters which clouded Mr. Pitt's setting sun, the country has reason for congratulating itself on the new administration, who will not be disposed to adopt the late Premier's baleful system: but if we reflect on the actual state of the political world, and the melancholy preponderance which the enemy has obtained on the Continent, we shall not expect too much from their exertions. With regard to our internal evils, this old whig recalls the attention of the present Ministry to the sources from which they have flowed, and inculcates those constitutional principles which for some time have been going out of fashion. Viewing matters at home, he deems it necessary for the salvation of the country that Mr. Fox, a tried whig, should be in office; because he is precisely the man who will retrieve our lost diplomatic credit on the Continent: but it is added, that he must be a minister for a length of time, and obtain cordial support, to accomplish these objects. In terms not less strong than merited, the author reprobates 'that wretched system of juggling, finesse, trick and legerdemain (it deserves no higher title) which for these last fourteen years has been played off so clumsily before the nation;' and having sketched the traits of Mr. Pitt's administration, he subjoins the following portrait of him as a minister.

His eloquence I believe to have been unrivalled and inimitable: let his statue be erected amongst those of Demosthenes and Cicero, and all who in any age or any country have been most illustrious for that fascinating art; let the workmanship be perfect, let there not be a streak in the marble. I must still insist that his ambition was of a vulgar rank, that he was a wild and heedless politician, playing most rashly, when the stake was nothing less than the safety of his country, and the liberties of Europe. Unfortunately, the peculiar errors of his character, amidst the whole catalogue of human infirmities, were the most unsuitable that could be found to the critical times he lived in, when if any fault had been pardonable it had been that of an over-cautious discretion. Deeply, most deeply, do we suffer for these

these errors; no measures can ever relieve us from their consequences.'

Some rays of hope are nevertheless subjoined. It is, however, a proud and consoling thought, that all which prudence can suggest, or vigour execute for this purpose, will be accomplished by the present administration; they will, ~~with their efforts~~ to give us back, as far as may be, the constitution, ~~so far as to~~ the spirit of our nobles, the privileges of our people; the light we enjoy we shall spread over others, and in the day of battle, if ever that day should arrive, we shall fight irresistibly because we shall have much to lose.

A rational view is given of the grounds on which Lord Grenville coalesces with Mr. Fox, and the author hopes that this union may be firm and lasting. The present Secretary for Foreign Affairs is highly though not undeservedly panegyricized; Lord H. Petty obtains no inconsiderable share of praise; and while the nation is reminded of the merits of several members of the present administration, and of their fitness to combat the dangers of the state, the people are required to do their duty, and exhorted to guard against those feelings of false honour and of hollow pride which necessarily lead to destruction.

#### MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 23. *Chirurgical Observations relative to the Eye; Observations on the Cataract, &c.* By James Ware, Surgeon, F.R.S. &c. The 2d Edition, with many Additions. 2 Vols. 8vo. 18s. 6d. Boards. Mawman.

These volumes may be considered as a collection of all the treatises on the eye which have been, at different times, published by Mr. Ware \*. The first contains his remarks on ophthalmia, and the purulent eyes of newly born children, his observations on the epiphora; and on the  *fistula lachrymalis*; the 2d volume includes a translation of Wenzel's treatise on the cataract, Mr. Ware's observations on the same subject, the case of a young gentleman who recovered his sight when 7 years of age, (first published in the Philosophical Transactions,) observations on the dissipation of the cataract, and remarks on the  *gutta serena*. To these are added two essays on the introduction of the catheter, and the treatment of hemorrhoids. The main bulk of these different dissertations is already before the public; and the additional matter consists principally of some new cases, illustrative of Mr. Ware's ideas respecting the nature of the diseases of the eyes, or his method of curing them. The one which will probably be considered as the most valuable is an account of 'an ophthalmia with violent pain, consequent on a  *gutta serena*.' Mr. Ware having found that a disease, attended with similar symptoms, was produced by the effusion of a fluid between the choroid and retina, proposed, as a method of relieving the excessive pain which the patient suffered, that the fluid should be discharged by a puncture made in the back

\* See Rev. Vols. lxxiii. and lxxviii. and N. S. Vols. xi. xvii. xviii. and xxvii.

part of the eye; and the operation proved successful, affording almost immediate ease.

As Mr. Ware's skill and experience are sufficiently known, we have only to add that we may congratulate the profession on the greater ease with which they may now avail themselves of his labours, in consequence of his works becoming more accessible under their present form, than when they were scattered in different publications.

Art. 34. *Dialogues in the Shades*, recommended to every Purchaser of Dr. Kinglake's Dissertation, &c. as an appropriate Tailpiece for Embellishment and Illustration. By Sir John Floyer's Ghost. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cox.

It is scarcely necessary to say that the author of this publication (whom the dedication informs us to be Dr. Perry, of Hillingdon near Uxbridge,) is a zealous opponent of Dr. Kinglake's principles and practice in Gout.—We infer that he conceives Dr. Kinglake to be invulnerable by argument, when he attacks him with the shafts of ridicule and sarcasm: but, though we have been amused by the perusal of these *Dialogues in the Shades*, we are not convinced that Dr. K. will be much affected, or the public much influenced, by a composition which bears too much the character of levity, for a grave and important subject.

The *Dialogues*, which are nine in number, are not confined to the depredations on human life made by the use of cold applications in gout; since Dr. P. contrives likewise to introduce, with ingenuity and humour, the deleterious effects of various other practices which he condemns.—Much allusion is made to well known deceased characters in the naval service; in which, we understand, the writer passed many years of his life as a surgeon, and in that capacity was an attendant of the celebrated Capt. Cook in one of his voyages round the world.

Art. 35. *A short Detail of some Circumstances connected with Vaccine Inoculation*, which lately occurred in this Neighbourhood: with a few relative Remarks. By R. Dunning, Surgeon, Plymouth Dock. 12mo. pp. 42. Murray.

This author's object is to give additional publicity to a case of small pox occurring after cow-pox, which had been much misrepresented in his neighbourhood. He admits that a very mild small-pox here appeared after successful vaccine inoculation: but, at the same time, he disarms it of the terrors which such an admission might occasion, by stating it as a deviation from the ordinary course of nature, which is not more remarkable than that of a second attack of small-pox, of which he has had occasion to become acquainted with several instances. 'Susceptibility of the contagion of small-pox into the human body,' he remarks, 'seems to be a law of nature; yet we see, now and then, a person passing through a long life under the fullest and constant exposure to it, without taking it on in the smallest degree. Does not this fact, therefore, also appear to us scarcely less extraordinary, and less unaccountable, than, that a high susceptibility, or an unknown something, should subject a person,



here and there, to a second impression from it, or to the action of the variolous principle after the vaccine.'

Mr. D. erroneously uses small-pox as a plural instead of a singular noun, when meaning to designate the disease.

Art. 36. *Expositions on the Inoculation of the Small-pox and Cow-pock.* 8vo. 6d. Mawman.

A moderate and sensible popular address on the safety and advantages of cow pox inoculation: but, as many facts are stated in the pamphlet which require authority for their support, it loses much of its force by being anonymous; notwithstanding the author tells us that he has left references with the printer to the cases which he narrates.

Numerous other tracts on this subject remain for examination.

#### Æ A W.

Art. 37. *The Trial of Governor T. Picton, for inflicting the Torture on Louisa Calderon, a free Mulatto, and one of his Britannic Majesty's Subjects in the Island of Trinidad.* Tried before Lord Chief Justice Ellenborough and a Special Jury. Taken in Short Hand during the Proceedings on the 24th of February 1806. 8vo. pp. 126. 3s. 6d. Crosby and Co.

Subsequently to the conquest of Trinidad by the British Forces in 1797, Brigadier-General Picton was appointed Governor of the island; with instructions to rule according to the ancient laws subsisting in the settlement at its capture. A young Mulatto girl having been implicated in a robbery, and denying any knowledge of the transaction, the Governor ordered that the punishment of *piquetting* should be inflicted on her, to make her confess. She accordingly twice underwent this ordeal, and in consequence acknowledged her participation in the theft. It being doubted, however, that the Governor was authorized to adopt the application of torture, he was put upon his trial, as here recorded. The indictment stated that the act was unlawful and malicious: but the Counsel for the Defendant attempted to prove that by the law of Spain, which he was bound to administer, torture was admissible in this particular instance; that, even if it were *unlawfully*, it was not *maliciously* done; and lastly that, if, from ignorance of the law of Spain, he had acted thus illegally, the charge resolved itself into a mistake or error, and the indictment would not lie. In the course of evidence, the Judge saw reason for giving his opinion that there were many points in the case which made it fit that the verdict should be *special*, and that there were several matters connected with the Spanish law which required particular examination. This proposition being adopted, the evidence proceeded; the jury found that there was no proof of the existence of any law which authorized the infliction of torture in Trinidad, previously to its capitulation to the British, and therefore (under the direction of the judge) returned a verdict of *Guilty*; and the Defendant's counsel gave notice of an intention to move for a new trial, on the ground that there was no *malice*, and that he acted from improper advice.

The

The proceedings appear to be reported at length, but they are incorrectly printed: in some places, obvious mistakes occur, as at p. 38. l. 5. *plaintiff* for *defendant*; in others, the ambiguity of some sentences leads us to suspect errors; and the indictment is not stated.

THANKSGIVING SERMONS, Dec. 5, 1805.

Art. 38. *The Watchers and the Holy Ones.*—Preached in the Cathedral Church of St. Asaph, Dec. 5, 1805, &c. By Samuel, by Divine Permission, Lord Bishop of St. Asaph. 4to. 2s. Hatchard.

This singular sermon consists of two parts, viz. theological exposition, and political reflection. In the first, which is by much the most extended, the R. R. preacher endeavours to explain to what class of beings belong the "Watchers" and "the Holy Ones," mentioned in the text (Daniel iv. 17.) The opinion, that they are to be understood as angels of a distinguished rank, making the Cabinet or privy counsel of the Deity, is vehemently opposed; and the Holy Ones are interpreted to mean 'the Three Persons of the Godhead,' of which Michael the archangel is one, 'the description of whom particularly applies to the Son of God.' We are reminded that 'Michael the Archangel is the only archangel of which we know any thing in Holy Writ;' in the Apocrypha, however, another (Uriel) is mentioned; and if Bishop Horsley quotes the Apocrypha, in the instance of the Seven Brethren, might not its evidence be taken in other matters? We doubt whether the Orthodox will approve the Bishop's account, which makes the second person of the Trinity contend with the Devil about the body of Moses. Here, however, we wish not to argue, but merely to report.

In the other part, which discusses the assertion of the text that "the Most High rules in the kingdom of the earth and setteth over it the basest of men," the Bishop considers the conduct of Providence towards nations; by which bad men, to answer the purposes of God's judgments, are for a time exalted, and afterward humbled. He supposes that such is the destined end of the present conqueror of the Continent. We shall give the R. R. preacher's words:

'Persons are raised up and permitted to indulge their ferocious passions; their ambition, their cruelty, and their revenge, as the instruments of God's judgments for the reformation of his people; and when that purpose is answered, vengeance is executed upon them for their own crimes. Thus it was with the Syrian (Antiochus) and with that more ancient persecutor, Sennacherib, and many more. And so, we trust, it will be with him, who now "smiteth the people in his wrath and ruleth the nations in his anger." When the nations of Europe shall break off their sins by righteousness, the Corsican "shall be persecuted with the fury of our avenging God, and none shall hinder."

If we are to wait for the execution of vengeance on the Corsican till 'the nations of Europe break off their sins by righteousness,' his fall, notwithstanding Dr. Horsley's episcopal denunciations, is probably not very near. This prelate's predictions are clogged with *ifs* that are not very encouraging.—Without consulting Bonaparte, we may venture to say that he will agree to restore the power which he has

has acquired, into the hands of the excluded dynasty, when the conditions stated by the Bishop are fulfilled. Will the Bourbons have patience to wait?

Art. 39. *A Funeral Sermon for Lord Nelson, chiefly preached on the late Thanksgiving Day, at Thuresford and Snoring, in Norfolk, near the Birth-place of this Great Man. With a particular View to his most useful Life, and glorious Death. By the Rev. George Cook, M. A., Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge.* 4to. 2s 6d. Chapple.

When preachers represent Divine Providence as directing the sword of one nation against another, and as at least permitting the carnage of human beings by their fellow-creatures, it has been not unfrequently asked, where is the justice or the wisdom of the Almighty in this permission? Why are not his own bolts made his avenging ministers? Mr. Cook ventures to reply to this difficult question. He thinks, '*perhaps*, that it is for the example of a world of superior beings, that this world, like an incorrigible suicide, is left, not made, to inflict such punishment on itself, and that it is for the benefit of the world that populous and too aspiring nations are thinned of some of their most restless members.' We cannot however adopt Mr. Cook's first conjecture, unless we could be informed in what way our bloody contests can be an example to superior beings; and if we were to admit the last, we could not in a general view deprecate war, but must regard it as one of those partial evils which produce universal good. Unluckily for the preacher's position, it is not the aspiring and warlike nation that is thinned by the sword, but generally their harmless and inoffending neighbours. Though we are not pleased with such strange surmises offered from the pulpit, we commend the preacher's zeal in exciting the gratitude of the nation for our numerous blessings, and particularly for the late victory.

In sketching the life of Nelson, Mr. C. employs animated declamation to a degree of poetic fervor. His exploits are extolled in glowing language; and at his death, angels are represented as weeping advocates over some of his failings in the busy life of a soldier. The inhabitants of Norfolk are exhorted to erect a naval column in the parish in which the Hero was born, as 'a glorious sea mark for ourselves and for the enemy.'

Art. 40. Preached in the Parish Church of Kells; by the most Rev. T. I. O'Brien, D.D., Lord Bishop of Meath. 8vo. 2s. Printed at Dublin:—Rivingtons, London.

Several objects are combined in this sermon. The Right Rev. preacher justifies the war as a necessary act of self defence, since the enemy in his strides to boundless empire had thrown down the gauntlet; he asserts the interference of Providence in human affairs; and while he displays the importance of the late naval victory, he explains the manner in which we ought to express our gratitude to Almighty God for this signal national deliverance. He regards the foe as having received 'through the arms of our Sovereign the most galling rebuke from Providence, that his fierce spirit could have brooked;' and

that he conceives that his purposes respecting Ireland have thus been frustrated: 'High eulogies are bestowed on the gallantry and piety of the Hero who perished in the arms of victory; and instead of entering his tier with unchristian sorrow, we are exhorted to follow him with the eye of faith to those regions of bliss in which 'we may behold him received by Joshua, David, Josiah, and the brave son of Machabeus, who like him fell fighting the battles of their country.' The sermon concludes with expressing a hope that victory will lead to peace.

Other SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 41. *The Divine Glory displayed by the permission of Sin:* preached at a Monthly meeting of the Society for the Education of young Men for the Work of the Ministry, among Protestant Dissenters. To which are added copious notes and references. By John E. Smith. 8vo. 2s. Conder.

The preacher of this discourse stands in the exact predicament of an advocate at the bar, who has a brief put into his hand. The subject was not of his own selection: since its discussion, he informs us, arose from the appointment of others. If the above thesis had been given to Mr. Smith merely as a trial of his logical skill and adroitness, his sermon would have demanded no more notice than an academical exercise: but, as the proposition is seriously maintained, and made the basis of a system, his laboured arguments must not be wholly overlooked. To the credit of Mr. Smith's ingenuity, it must be admitted that his clients, who called him to so hard a service, ought to be satisfied with their pleader, since he has exerted in their cause all his logical powers; yet we apprehended that those, who can distinguish sound reasoning from chopping logic, will not admire the eloquence of this calvinistic diving.

Sin is defined to be 'a privation, an absence, a defect;' it is not, however, permitted by the Almighty, as Mr. S. tells us, in 'any sense that implies toleration.' He is unable to explain how it is possible for permission to exclude toleration: but he satisfies his auditors and himself with this sort of reason, 'God has not interfered in the prevention of moral evil, because he has not pleased to interfere.' When he advances to the prominent point of his thesis, he finds many reasons for the permission of Sin; for we are informed that thus the superiority, the excellence, the justice, the moral legislation and the mercy of God are displayed and established.

Ordinary capacities, arguing on this statement, might be led to regard Sin as more than tolerated in the Divine Arrangements, and might draw conclusions fatal to morality. We cannot perceive the utility of such discourses, which tend to perplex rather than to inform.

Art. 42. *Victory Mourning:* preached at Southampton Nov. 10, 1805: occasioned by the great Victory obtained over the combined Fleets of France and Spain, off Cape Trafalgar Oct. 21, when the renowned Lord Nelson was slain. By William Kingsbury, M.A. 8vo. 1s. Ostell.

Some

Some serious and apposite reflections are suggested by the preacher in this discourse. War is depicted in all its horrors and calamities, and the Christian is said to be justified in praying against those "who delight in it;" yet Mr. K. observes that, in certain circumstances, it is unavoidable, and that our knowledge of the miseries which it brings in its train should be an argument with us to repel invaders. The value of the late victory, he thinks, will be best appreciated by considering what would have been the situation of the country, at this hour, had the event been reversed. In this point of view, who can contemplate it without gratitude? By the death of the hero, however, he regards "the victory as turned into mourning to all the people;" and his expressions of esteem and regret are honourable to his patriotism. These we applaud: but we think that discretion was wanting when, in the conclusion, he observes that the death of the naval conqueror may be improved to remind us of the dying "Captain of our salvation." The victories of Gospel truth, obtained by the gentle means of persuasion, have no analogy with victories won at the cannon's mouth;—the conquests of the "Captain of our Salvation" were not gained by any bloody resistance opposed to the malice of his cruel enemies. To make any comparison of Lord Nelson with Jesus Christ is, in our apprehension, nothing less than impious.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

A little consideration will doubtless convince M. Dutens of the necessity for our adhering to the rule which has always guided us, of declining any interference on such occasions as that to which his letter relates.

Mr. Buttermann, and a host of similar applicants, must really give credit to our representation that *hundreds* of publications besides their own are claimants on our attention; and that we must take them in detail, having no powers equal to an adjudication *en masse*. In such a predicament, we grant that it may be unfortunate, but we must assert that it is unavoidable, that *some must wait*.

Mr. Keegan's communication is received.

R.'s work has been mislaid, but we will look for it, and endeavour to make an early report of its merits.

Mr. Reina shall have an *answer* next month.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1806.

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ART. I. *Academical Questions.* By the Right Honourable William Drummond, K.C. F.R.S. F.R. S.E. Author of a Translation of Persius \*. Vol. I. 4to. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1805.

A TREATISE on the most abstruse parts of Metaphysics, printed with Bulmer's types, on hot-pressed wove paper, and written by a Gentleman of the Diplomatic world, is somewhat of a novelty in literary annals; and in the latter respect, at least, a gratifying novelty. We felt surprised during our first hasty glances at the book; we dipped here and there, and found our attention powerfully engaged; and very soon we formally seated ourselves at our table, and with deliberate resolution began a regular perusal of its contents. Under the circumstances which characterize the publication, perhaps we may say even of this profound subject,

“ In its face  
Excuse came prologue;”—

and though we perceive that we shall extend our analysis to unusual length, we think that few who peruse it will deny the justice of our attention.

As the first volume only is before us, we are unable to state, with any degree of precision, the particular system which the author wishes to maintain. Indeed, the plan, construction, and conduct of the present part belong not to any individual system, and afford us only small indications of that which is hereafter to be established. Generally speaking, we do not love systems: but Mr. Drummond's readers will, after their perilous voyage through antient and modern theories, and after having been tossed on the uncertain and unfathomable seas of substance, matter, and motion, expect some repose in a port and harbour of his own choice and appointment. Towards this termination we look with pleasure; not that we expect from the author a curious and fine system, containing the

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\* See M. Rev. Vol. xxvii. N. S. p. 90.

explanation of all mental phænomena; nor one that may enable us to dogmatize, or that may induce us to treat with contempt those who refuse assent to it: but a system, more in name than in principle, that shall arrange and distribute into classes the common and acknowledged phænomena of the mind; and shall separate that which we know from that which is uncertain,—that which we can affirm from that which lies within the province of conjecture. Mr. D. may confer a valuable benefit on philosophy, even if he does not propound a system.

A perusal of the present volume exacts considerable intensity of application, but [not continued application: for, as we have already stated, the progress through the chapters of this book is not a progress through the parts and successive steps of a system. Truths, many, various, and important, continually present themselves to the reader: but the author's aim is rather to sap and demolish old hypotheses, than to found a new one. He carries on a desultory warfare, and wields with equal success the shafts of ridicule and the more ponderous weapons of close argumentation. To method and regularity he is either adverse, or he chuses not to observe them. He interrupts the course of his reasoning by the introduction of learned and critical observations; while he is conducting the reader through the thorny paths of metaphysical disquisition, he finds sufficient leisure, or feels sufficient composure, to scatter the flowers of imagery and fancy; and, totally devoid of bigotry, he states and discusses momentous questions with an impartiality not far remote from indifference. If it be true, as it has been observed, that violent attachment to systems and opinions declines and fades with thought and extended observation, Mr. D. has indeed thought much and observed much; and to the truth of this inference we are inclined to assent without the preceding condition.—Let us now, however, proceed with this bold inquirer, and follow the track of his irregular course.

In the preface, Mr. Drummond explains the motives of his undertaking, and asserts the cause of metaphysical science with great eloquence, but in our opinion somewhat diffusely and rhetorically: was this necessary, or will it do good? We rather wish that the discussion had been omitted; yet who will deny that the Right Hon. Gentleman pleads with energy?

Little fortitude is requisite to bear with indifference the misrepresentations of the ignorant, or the contempt of the vulgar, the mistakes of the illiterate, or the pretensions of the superficial. The philosopher may calmly assert his claims against those, who would trick themselves out in his mantle, and may leave frivolity and dullness to themselves, to scoff, or to revile, without experiencing any sentiments of regret or indignation. It is nothing to him, that his  
tone

tone and his language are ill imitated by the sophist; that he is considered as a useless member of society by the heavy plodding man of business; or that he is exposed to the impotent ridicule of the gaudy coxcomb, by whom he can never be approved, because he can never be understood. What is it to him, though his name be unknown among the monopolizers, the schemers, and the projectors, that throng the crowded capital of a mercantile nation? What is it to him, though his talents be undervalued by the votaries and the victims of dissipation, folly, and fashion? What is to him, though grandeur should have withdrawn its protection from genius; though ambition should be satisfied with power alone; and though power should only exert its efforts to preserve itself? These things may not affect him: they may neither interrupt the course of his studies, nor disturb the serenity of his mind. But what must be his feelings, if he should find, that philosophy is persecuted, where science is professed to be taught? Are there not some, who seem desirous of excluding it from the plan of public education? The advantages, which are to be derived from classical knowledge are well understood in one place; and a profound acquaintance with mathematics is highly estimated in another; while the study of the human mind, which is the study of human nature, and that examination of principles which is so necessary to the scrutiny of truth, are either discouraged as dangerous, or neglected as useless. Who, that possesses any taste at all, will deny their charms to the arts of poetry and eloquence, or hesitate to acknowledge, that the most brilliant models in both are to be found in the ancient languages of Greece and Rome? Who, that can appreciate the utility or the beauty of science, will fail to put their full and vast value on the acquisitions of the mathematician? Yet when all this is granted, does it follow, that no other studies are worthy of being cultivated? Shall we limit our researches to a few chosen spots, when the whole world of nature is before us? Are we justifiable in confining science within bounds, which, it itself teaches us, are not its proper limits? In the societies to which I allude, I am persuaded that there are many persons who regret with me, that the study of philosophy is so little encouraged, and who, like me, cannot comprehend, how it should tend either to the corruption of good morals, or to the detriment of real learning. We may, indeed, generally say, that in proportion as men are well informed, so their dispositions are improved, and their manners are softened. Elegance, however, is apt to degenerate into effeminacy, and gentleness to lapse into weakness. The cultivation of the higher sciences especially tends to invigorate the mind: and strength of understanding is that, which gives manliness, energy, and consistency to character. Nor is this all. The influence of passion diminishes, as the love of knowledge encreases; and habits of reflection, produced by philosophical and scientific enquiries, are the best antidotes against the allurements of pleasure, idleness, and vice: *O vita philosophia dux, O virtutis indagatrix, expultrixque vitiorum, quid non modo nos, sed omnino vita hominum sine te esse potuisset!*—

‘I am well aware, that the perils of which I speak, are not likely to become very common, any more than the studies and pursuits which



which may occasion them. They are not to be apprehended for the idler, or the libertine—for the selfish, or the sordid mind—for him who is ambitious only of vulgar fame—or for the man who is satisfied with the school boy's learning—least of all are they to be feared for the pedant, who comes into society swaggering, and bullying; big with authorities, and bristling with prejudices; pronouncing dogmas, and defying difficulties; positive in all his opinions, and hating a doubt worse than a contradiction.'

If we have any objections to this preface, we certainly are pleased with the termination; and this without any small witty allusion. It is thus spiritedly wrought:

'In all events, I trust, whatever be the fate of my own speculations, that philosophy will regain that estimation which it ought to possess. The free and philosophic spirit of our nation has been the theme of admiration to the world. This was the proud distinction of Englishmen, and the luminous source of all their glory. Shall we then forget the manly and dignified sentiments of our ancestors, to prate in the language of the mother, or the nurse, about our good old prejudices? This is not the way to defend the cause of truth. It was not thus, that our fathers maintained it in the brilliant periods of our history. Prejudice may be trusted to guard the outworks for a short space of time, while Reason slumbers in the citadel; but if the latter sink into a lethargy, the former will quickly erect a standard for herself. Philosophy, wisdom, and liberty, support each other; he, who will not reason, is a bigot; he, who cannot, is a fool; and he, who dares not, is a slave.'

We believe that there are not a few philosophers, even of those who have studied the best of metaphysical treatises, the *Essay on the Human Understanding*, who would not be puzzled to define clearly what ought to be understood by the term *mind*. Is it a substance, a material organization existing within us? Some philosophers, advancing a contradiction even in the very terms of their definition, have said that it is an *incorporeal substance*. Then this incorporeal substance has been endowed with qualities, faculties, and attributes; and the care of its empire has been parcelled out and delegated to subordinate powers, to memory, invention, abstraction, &c.: so that a student, beguiled by figurative language, and mistaking terms for realities, has fancied that he possessed within himself an embodied power called memory, another called invention, and a third called abstraction. In all metaphysical systems, also, action and passion have played distinguished parts, but chiefly that unknown thing called *power*: which has been as advantageous to the makers of systems, and has caused as much confusion, as the term *force* in mathematical inquiries. A good philosophy will not banish these terms, but a good philosophy will take care exactly to define them. These questions concerning mind and power, action and passion, the present  
author

author has discussed with ability in his first chapter. In reference to the division of mind into its faculties, &c. he says; 'Invention is fatigued, and language is tortured, in dividing and in subdividing the qualities of the mind; and in denoting by appropriate terms the various operations of intellect, the secret energies of soul, and the fine partitions which divide thought from thought.' Again, in speaking of power, he observes:

'Before accounting for all mental *phenomena*, by supposing the existence of a number of intellectual faculties, it might have been perhaps worthy of philosophical accuracy to have examined, and to have explained (if it could be done) the nature of power. Is power a cause or an effect? Philosophers do not appear to have decided this question. Sometimes they speak of power, as if it were the principle which had occasioned all things, and by which the universe itself was produced; at other times they seem to consider it, as having resulted from some Being already existing; nor do they inform us, in what way they understand, how any thing can exist without the previous exertion of power. Is it possible to reconcile these different opinions? Power cannot be at once the principle and the attribute of Being. It cannot be both the consequence and the origin of existing substance—that by which all things were caused, and yet that, which something was necessary to cause.

'If we consider power as the cause, by which we are ultimately to account for all effects, we must acknowledge, that it is itself a boundary, which we cannot pass—a principle, before which nothing can be placed. Where there are separate powers, then, there are separate principles; and a principle is that, which being derived from nothing, can hold of nothing. *Principio autem nulla est origo*, says Cicero, *nam ex principio oriuntur omnia; ipsum autem nulla ex re; nec enim id esset principium quod gigneretur aliunde.*

'According to this manner of considering power, it is absolutely contradictory to maintain the unity of the mind, and yet to suppose the existence of distinct intellectual faculties, or powers. If the primary cause in one *series* be different from the primary cause in another, we cannot refer both these *series* to the same principle. If we trace an action to the will, a recollection to the memory, or a judgment to the understanding; how shall we pretend, that there is yet a more remote principle? By what inference shall we conclude, that the power of imagination is derived from any thing else; or that the faculty of comprehension is the delegate of any superiour intelligence? all these separate powers are primary causes; at least they are so to our understandings, if we can trace only to them any *series* of causes and effects. To say then, that power is a primary, or creative, cause, is to admit, that it is a principle, and in admitting it to be a principle, we must conclude against the unity of the human soul, while we continue to insist upon the existence of distinct mental powers.'

This is acutely and not inelegantly argued.—Mr. D. continues in the same strain, and divides and discusses with all the subtlety of a scholastic disputant. He maintains, contrary to the assertion of Locke, that we have no notion of power from observing the collision of external bodies and the effects of our own volitions; and here he follows Hume, in his chapter on the idea of necessary connection, p. 74. Vol. II. He makes a small digression concerning the passions, in which he ably shews that we must always yield to the strongest emotion, as we must always be determined by the strongest idea; and that sensation must overcome reason, which is not to be subdued by reasonings and moral rules.—Mr. Drummond seems to have studied Hume and Berkeley with great care; and he appears to be convinced by the arguments of the latter concerning Immaterialism. He does not deny, however, that there can be any material world, any external objects, but only that we are not authorised positively and dogmatically to assert the existence of something without us; and, indeed, it is rather surprising that certain of the reasonings used by Berkeley have not obtained a more general reception among the philosophic or thinking part of mankind; we mean that portion of his argument, by which it is shewn that the causation of sensation, &c. by the action of external objects, is a mere hypothesis.—Dr. Reid sided with the multitude, and the party which he espoused naturally procured for him both favour and supporters: but the Father of sound philosophy could have taught him, *Pessimum omnium est augurium, quod ex consensu capitur in rebus intellectualibus*, &c. We are glad to find comments, and comments of disapprobation, on Dr. Reid's *common sense*, by the present author. It is not, however, our intention to deny the existence of matter; for it must be acknowledged that our sensations may possibly be caused by external objects; or, in other words, granting that external objects did really exist, could they manifest themselves to us by any other mode than by causing sensations, and could we under any imagined system of matter and its operations have an undeniable proof of its existence? Mr. D. urges what in fact are Berkeley's arguments with singular neatness and elegance:

‘When we desire to analyse what any thing is, which we denominate an external object; we always find, that it may be resolved into certain sensible qualities. If I be desired to explain, what I perceive, when I examine a fine marble statue, I can only repeat the catalogue of my own feelings. I say, that I am sensible of the whiteness of the stone, of the beauty of the form, and of the justness of the proportions; that I feel hardness, and smoothness; and that  
I judge

I judge differently of its magnitude, while I observe that magnitude under different visual angles. Thus then, instead of describing the external statue, I am in fact expressing my own sentiments, stating my own feeling, declaring my own judgments, and detailing perceptions, which exist only in my own mind.

‘The active and passive states of external objects are determined by changes, which take place in their sensible qualities. But what are these qualities of external objects, unless they be sensations in our own minds, which we have attributed to things supposed to exist around us? We cannot define, nor describe, what we neither feel nor perceive. Nothing can be felt, nor perceived, where it is not. The changes, which exist in our own feelings, and in our own perceptions, must be erroneously stated to have had place in remote and exterior objects.

‘Men, who are not accustomed to speculative reasoning, seldom entertain any doubt of the agency of external things. Each individual easily forgets, that the busy world, of which he speaks, is perceived by him only in the mirror of his own mind. In it he only sees; beyond it he cannot look. Through sensation has all his knowledge come; and in the sentient being, and not in the external object, is the perception, as well as the existence, of change. Where we observe changes to occur, we assume the existence of power; we suppose the operation of causes; and we describe the physical and moral existence of things by their relative states of action and passion. But this illusion of the mind cannot alter the real nature of its perceptions; nor can it change the internal feeling into an external quality. Certain trains of complex ideas, found in constant conjunction, may be termed causes and effects, or active and passive states. Analysis, however, will soon convince us, that these distinctions can only be made, with respect to the order and associations of our own ideas.’

Again, the different philosophic systems of the mind are stated and described with remarkable pleasantry and felicity in the following passage:

‘We have, no doubt, to admire the variety of those analogies, and the happy choice of those figures, tropes, and metaphors, by which different writers have expressed the state of the mind. Sometimes the human intellect is likened to a piece of wax; sometimes to a dark chamber; and sometimes to a sheet of white paper. Here it is a physical point in the midst of a material system, or the intelligent centre of a sphere of attraction and repulsion. There it is placed in a conglomerate gland, which secretes the animal spirits from the blood. Now we hear of a *sensorium*, the proper seat of the soul: now we are informed, that the mind is a stationary monad, which neither acts, nor is acted upon: and now we are shown a curious and complicated machine, where ideas, and nervous vibrations are proved to be exponents of each other; where the nature of sensation is illustrated by the strings of a harpsichord; and where mental *phenomena* are explained by hints taken from the *pendulum* of a clock. A grave logician of the North talks of ideas being *lodged* in the understanding;

and

and a celebrated French metaphysician makes us mount to a garret in a castle, to have a peep at the country through a hole in the shutter."

The learned reader will easily perceive the different allusions in the preceding extract. In no case, so much as in metaphysical inquiries, have words been "as the Tartar's bow, and shot back on the understanding." Men have used figurative expressions, and have been misled by them; and some, according to the phrase of our author, have 'built an argument on a trope, and a system on a simile.'—This second chapter is highly deserving of attention.

In the third chapter, is undertaken an examination of part of Locke's system; that is, of his assertion and of the connected arguments, that 'sensation convinces us that there are solid and extended substances.' This part is extremely well argued on the principles of Berkeley. Mr. D. shews that we cannot have a knowledge of substance: that we cannot know it from itself, because ideas only are the objects of intellect: that we cannot know it from its idea, because, while we describe qualities, we cannot conceive substance. The strange assertion, also, of Locke, that we have an *obscure* idea of substance, is successfully combated and refuted; and the chapter is thus briefly and neatly summed up: 'It may be asked how I account for sensations, if I question the existence of a material *substratum*? I might ask in my turn, how we can account for them with it? To assign causes for every thing has been the vain attempt of ignorance in every age. It has been by encouraging this error, that superstition has enslaved the world. In proportion as men are rude, uncultivated, and uncivilized, they are determined in their opinions, bold in their presumptions, and obstinate in their prejudices. When they begin to doubt, it may be concluded, they begin to be refined. The savage is seldom a sceptic—the barbarian is rarely incredulous. The less men know, the less they are embarrassed to find a cause for any event.'

Chapter iv. contains remarks on the *primary matter* of the antients; 'a question, according to Plato, dubiously to be understood, and difficult to be comprehended.' The discussions and remarks of Mr. D. are always interesting: but, in point of utility, that is, for the refutation of accepted and prevalent error, the discussions in this chapter were perhaps unnecessary. No persons now, however, who are even slightly imbued with philosophy, believe in the existence of that which is not earth, nor air, nor fire, nor water; which is not hot, nor cold, nor dry, nor moist, nor solid, nor extended. One or two may quietly be suffered to indulge in their reveries, and ought not to be contradicted when they assert that they gain a glimpse of the

the *primary matter* by abstraction, and a sight of it by *analogy*. When will this verbal farrago be wiped away? What real information have we actually gained from all the dogmas of the schools, concerning thinking and material substances, the elementary matter, and the inscrutable support of external qualities?

Locke, it is known to every smatterer in metaphysics, made a distinction between the primary and secondary qualities of bodies; and Berkeley never argued more happily and ably than when he controverted the truth of this distinction: but, notwithstanding the cogency of his arguments, Dr. Reid did not yield to them. The subject, then, being still embarrassed by doubt and discussion, Mr. Drummond has directed his attention to it; and he combats the opinions both of Dr. Reid and the author of *Antient Metaphysics*. Those who are acquainted with the writings of the Bishop of Cloyne may easily recognize, in the present chapter, a similarity to his spirit and sentiments.—In the succeeding chapter, the sixth, Mr. D. considers what has been said on Solidity and Impenetrability; and his observations on the Florentine Experiment deserve to be noticed:

‘The Academicians at Florence enclosed a drop of water in a globe of gold, and while the water remained, the sides of the globe could not be compressed together: they did not doubt but that they had proved the impenetrability of matter.

‘It is not for the purpose of interrupting the dreams of philosophy, when she reposes in the laboratory, that I would wish to observe, that in this experiment a degree of force only was employed, and that, therefore, a degree of resistance only was proved. Now there are no degrees of impenetrability, which, if it mean any thing, means infinite resistance.

‘There seems indeed, to be reason to conclude, either that impenetrability does not exist, or that if it do, its existence cannot be proved. *First*, if there be infinite force, there cannot be infinite resistance. The force without limit may meet with no obstacle, and cannot exist with infinite resistance. If God be omnipotent, matter is not impenetrable. If there be infinite force in any thing, there cannot be resistance, which may be also infinite, in any thing else. *Secondly*, if there be not infinite force, nothing can prove infinite resistance. Finite force can only demonstrate finite resistance; for that, which has limits, cannot measure that which has none. Man can only apply a degree of force to measure resistance; and it is only a degree of resistance which he can prove.’

Chapter VII. relates to Extension; which, as it might be expected, the author denies to be a primary quality of matter; and he arrives, by a different route, at the same conclusion with Bishop Berkeley: but he goes farther, and states some positive opinion

opinion of his own as to what extension may be conceived to be; and he defines it to be a simple mode of duration, which he illustrates as follows:

'Let any whole visible extent, answering to the whole visual angle, at which all the rays of light falling upon the *retina* are concentrated, be denominated a *continuous* quantity. Again, let any apparent dis-united quantities, equal to particular objects, and making parts of continuous quantity, be called *discrete*. Continuous extension will be equal to what I term the simple mode of duration; and discrete quantities to particular combinations of the same simple idea. In the extension, which is continuous, we only consider the simple mode itself; but in discrete quantities, the mode is not contemplated simply, but as mixed with other modes; and this in fact gives us the difference, as we shall have occasion afterwards more fully to show, between one discrete quantity and another.

'When I look out of my window, the objects, which I see before me, give me notions of discrete quantities. The mind cannot contemplate more than one idea at a time, with whatever rapidity whole trains may pass before it; and a regular *series* of images passes in my imagination, while I survey the prospect before me, and while the neighbouring shores, covered with buildings, gardens, and vineyards, the sea, a remote promontory, and a farther island, fill the painted field of my vision, and successively attract my notice. But all these objects, with their different distances, and relative magnitudes, being, as it were, summed up, make me perceptive of the simple mode of duration, which has been called continuous extension.'

This illustration may be exact as far as it goes, but it is not sufficiently full and explicit to be clear and satisfactory. In the next chapter, however, the author proceeds with his mode of explanation, and applies it to that most difficult subject, *motion*: which he defines to be a mutation in the combination of our ideas of extension: thus, if of A, a continuous extension, the parts, and in their order, are B, C, D; then, if such order be changed into C, D, B, we have an idea of motion: which is, therefore, as it has been defined, a change perceived in the associations of the simple idea of extension.

No occasion for displaying the acuteness of his doubting faculties is passed over by Mr. D. Is there any certain measure of time? Can it be measured by motion? By bodies passing over equal spaces in equal times? The measure of time flowing equably and uniformly is, in fact, assumed. A clock moves equably when its hand always performs a revolution in an interval equal to the time between the successive appulses of a star to the meridian: but if a person denies that the star or that the earth moves equably, by what reasoning shall he be convinced of his error?

'It is impossible (says Mr. D.) to answer these questions, without appealing to the associations of our own ideas, and without seeing, that

that the science of proportions is the comparison of judgments. When we measure any period by the motion of external bodies, we combine ideas of extension, velocity, and gravity, with ideas belonging to another simple mode of duration, which we call time. If I count to the same number, or walk at the same pace to the same distance, every time the hand of my watch advances one minute, I conclude, that the watch marks equal divisions of time, and that the hand passes through equal spaces in equal periods. If I find the result to be similar with respect to other time-pieces, my calculation will admit of yet greater accuracy; but I am still compelled to consult the comparison of one judgment with another, before I can pretend to speak with any certainty at all. Now the conclusion, which I make, is formed from my own preceptions, and consequently the thing, about which I conclude, is dependent upon perception, and exists only as it is perceived.

'The artificial divisions of time are usually determined by our perception of regular motion, that is, of regular mutations in the combinations of our ideas belonging to that mode, which we call extension. Such mutations imply, that equal ideas are displaced and replaced by each other. Any discrete quantity, supposed in any continuous extension, must occupy a space equal to its own magnitude. Now if this discrete quantity at every mutation occupy a space contiguous with the last, through which it passed, always equal to its own magnitude; and if its mutations be continuous, it will pass through equal spaces in equal times: because if the equal parts of the discrete quantity move in an equal *ratio* with each other, the whole quantity will pass through equal spaces in equal periods. Thus then the equal parts in any discrete quantity may answer to the repetition of the same simple idea, and the quantity itself to any particular combination of that idea. The parts in the simple mode of duration, *extension*, may be taken as signs for the parts in the simple mode of duration, *time*; and in this manner: the one mode will serve as the measure of the other.'

As it has been already stated, Mr. Drummond follows no obvious arrangement; and the parts of his work do not tend successively to a certain object. Of his acuteness, fancy, and eloquence, the sections which we have considered furnish abundant proof; and in the 9th chapter, on the subject of our senses, he sets forth his varied attainments in all the array of studied magnificence. We are regaled with anatomy, chemistry, poetry, and classical learning. The exquisite contrivances of the ear and eye are exposed to our view; and the supper-tables of the Greeks and Romans are spread out before us, with more than Sancho Pança's tantalization. Yet, in these digressions, (if any part of the present work can be called a digression,) the author is very amusing and instructive. This chapter, however, is less calculated than those which precede it, to promote the proper object of skilful disquisitions; which



object Mr. D. has himself expressed in the words of a French author, "*Il ne s'agit pas de faire lire, mais de faire penser.*"

Metaphysical studies are not prosecuted, we believe, in the southern part of this island, with great ardour; and even where they are prosecuted, only modern metaphysical works are read and quoted; antient metaphysicians being neglected, or known merely by name, and by occasional and sparing extracts. Who now reads Leibnitz and Descartes? yet what brighter names occur amid the founders of metaphysic systems? In Mr. Drummond's wide range of research, he has not omitted these authors; the first chapter of his second book commences with an examination of the system of Descartes; and he proposes to review others before he develops that intellectual system which he considers as *founded on the highest probability*. This is the author's mode of expression, and, in our opinion, the proper mode; not for the bare recommendation of modesty which it possesses, but because, on these subjects, whatever may be the extent and the accuracy of the investigation, nothing positively certain can be determined.

The principal end proposed in this examination of the hypothesis of Descartes, and of those of others, is to inquire whether there be any system which has clearly and consistently accounted for intellectual phænomena, while the philosophical doctrine of substance, with its powers and attributes, has been admitted. After having summarily and very neatly laid down the system of Descartes, the author thus accutely comments on it:—we suppose our readers to be acquainted with his famous principle, "*Ego cogito, ergo sum,*" and of the use which he made of it:

‘Let us apply a yet more severe *analysis* to these celebrated words—*ego cogito, ergo sum*. Is not that, which is here intended to be proved in the conclusion, already taken for granted in the premises? When I say, *ego cogito*, do I not imply *ego sum*? A being, that thinks, must exist. To think is to be *intellectually*. *Ego cogito* precisely expresses, *ego sum ens cogitans*. Thus Des-Cartes has told us, that he exists as a thinking being, and that therefore he exists. The logic must be allowed to be simple enough, which assures us that we are, because we are; but he, who employs it, takes the thing for granted, which he had proposed to prove. I, who think, am a thinking being. I cannot think, unless I be so. If therefore, I take it for granted, that I think, I also take it for granted that I am. It is then idle to say, I think, and therefore I am. A thinking being is a being that exists in a particular mode; and it is as absurd to set about proving, that a thinking being is a being, as it would be to attempt demonstrating that a right angle is an angle.’

Mr. Drummond then examines another position of Descartes, in which that is assumed as true, which can be clearly and distinctly

distinctly perceived; and it is pertinently asked, what is that which is true,—*quid est verum?* The remarks on this position are able, but somewhat prolix. Their tendency is to ascribe every thing to self, to our own conviction:—a man judges only by his own perceptions that other men think and feel similarly to himself. It would be doing an injustice to the author, not to transcribe the animated and philosophic passage with which he terminates this chapter :

‘ We may, indeed, suspect, that Des-Cartes was not hitherto satisfied with his own reasoning concerning the existence of the material world, since his belief in it finally rested upon this, that the Deity could not desire to deceive him. The supposition would be impious. God does not deceive us; but we deceive ourselves. We are not satisfied with speaking of the objects of our perception—of what we feel and understand. We seek to attach ideas to mere abstractions, and to give being to pure denominations. The dreams of our imaginations become the standards of our faith. Essences, which cannot be defined; substances, which cannot be conceived; powers, which have never been comprehended; and causes, which operate, we know not how; are sounds familiar to the language of error. Accustomed to hear them from our infancy, we seldom enquire into their meaning. Our early associations form the code of our reason. We forget our first impressions; nor recollect how simple are the elements of all our knowledge. Deluded by his own mind, man continues to wander in the mazes of the labyrinth, which lies before him, unsuspecting of his deviations from the truth. Like some knight of romance in an enchanted palace, he mistakes the fictitious for the real, and the false for the true. He is dazzled by the effulgence of the meteor, and thinks he sees by the light of the sun. The prisoner, who dreams in his dungeon, imagines himself walking abroad in the fields, or in the streets. He enjoys the sweets of fancied liberty. See, how gladly he inhales the fresh air of the morning, or embraces the friends whom he loves. He suspects not that the world, which he has revisited, exists only in himself; and that he must shortly awake to the conviction of his error—to solitude, captivity, and sorrow. Is there no being, who resembles this dreamer? Is there not one, who perceives his own ideas, and calls them external objects; who thinks he distinguishes the truth, and who sees it not; who grasps at shadows, and who follows phantoms; who passes from the cradle to the tomb, the dupe and often the victim of the illusions, which he himself has created?’

Some of the opinions of Lord Bacon, respecting mind, next pass under scrutiny. The partition of the mind into distinct and separate faculties is controverted; and indeed great mistakes exist on this subject. It may be convenient to distribute mental phenomena into classes: but we make a violent assumption, when, instead of a class, we use a power, and affirm that *this* mental phenomenon arises from the power of memory, *this* from the power of reason, and *this* from the power of imagination.

imagination. We recollect, we reason, and we imagine; that is, we have perceptions:—may not the questions be asked, is internal perception any thing else than a distinct idea, and may not all the subjects of our knowledge be only different modes of feeling? Besides that of Bacon, great authority may be cited for the separation of mind into different kinds of intellect; viz. that of Aristotle: but it is, as Mr. D. observes, perfectly arbitrary, and without foundation in truth or nature. The history of our assumption of *powers* is thus concisely stated:

‘ By what gradual advances have we come from sense and particulars to the knowledge of faculties? Do we not, on the contrary, ascend at once from sense and particulars to something altogether general? We begin by remarking particulars; then we suppose the existence of power, which is as general as any thing can be; and finally we distribute power into a certain number of faculties and forces, and attribute them to matter, or to mind, as suits our convenience, and as the *hypothesis* which we happen to have adopted, may require.’

To this chapter the author subjoins an appendix; in which he touches on matters that bear some relation to the questions lately agitated in Scotland respecting Mr. Leslie's approbation of Hume's doctrine of cause and effect. According to the Scottish philosopher, causes and effects are events which are invariably conjoined; and, consequently, in such doctrine, the idea of *power* is not admitted. This doctrine the clergy of the North did not approve; and they published a little scrap and specimen of their metaphysics, by which it appeared that they leaned to that principle which has been adopted by Necessarians and Atheists for the establishment of their peculiar systems. Without any reference to this dispute, however, (for it is probable that Mr. D. had cast his thoughts into the shape of *Academical Questions* before it happened,) the present author observes that the readiness with which some orthodox writers admit the interference of power, and assume its existence on every occasion, appears unaccountable when it is considered that this position is peculiarly useful to the advocates for the doctrine of universal necessity. If we attribute one thing to the *power* of another, it must have been necessarily caused by it: if the power has been transmitted from one cause to another, no cause can be first, any more than a series which is every way infinite can have a first term: if every thing be referred to a principle whence all power is derived, then to such principle all efficient causes, whether of good or of ill, must be traced; and contingent causes must all be banished, since, if contingent, they cannot be traced to a primary principle. It is thus, the author argues, that the assumption of power begets the

the doctrine of necessity; which is not consistent with true religion, or the belief of the perfect attributes of a supreme cause; and the inference is that power, or that occult operation by which one thing is said to act on another, ought not hastily and unadvisedly to be assumed.

In the third chapter, objections are urged against the Newtonian theism: but we are less pleased with this than with the preceding discussions. Perhaps our reverence for the great philosopher obscures our discernment: yet surely it argues a wanton love of controversy and attack to pick out of the *Principia*, for opposition, one or two short passages, which do not essentially belong to the plan and subject of that astonishing work; for, as the author says, his business is not with the physico mathematicians of the Newtonian school, but with the Newtonian theist. He throws his arguments into the shape of a controversy between a Newtonian atheist and theist. The former objects that, if the universe,—the earth and the planets,—be moved by God, and if action and re-action be equal and contrary, how shall we imagine the re-action of a material world on an immaterial mover? The theist says that, according to Newton, all things are contained and moved in God, *sed sine mutua passione*. The atheist revives an ancient doctrine, that nothing can move another which is not itself capable of being moved:

‘The doctrine of Newton (it is urged) concerning his prime intellectual mover renders his *hypothesis* yet more inadmissible, since it directly contradicts one of his own axioms. Now that Newton should establish an *hypothesis*, and one likewise which contradicts an axiom, may alarm us for all the conclusions of human reason. It is, however, just as impossible to conceive, that one thing should move another *sine mutua passione*, as it would be to conceive the reverse of any mathematical truth whatever. If you have one law for the theist, and a contrary one for the philosopher, you must of course perplex the man, who would be both theist and philosopher. You say in your philosophical law, *actioni contrariam SEMPER et æqualem esse re-actionem*: you tell us in your religious law, *Universa in Deo moventur, sed sine mutua passione*. Thus a contradiction, like a vast abyss which cannot be passed, lies between the theist and the philosopher, and separates them for ever from each other.’

Chap. IV. of Book II. is in the form of a dialogue, after the manner of Hume's dialogue concerning Natural Religion, between Theophilus and Hylus, Eugenius being umpire. The controversy respects some of the great truths of Natural Religion; and both disputants admit the existence of a God, but they differ concerning his nature and attributes. The answer of Hylus is subtle and elaborate: of its energy, we cannot offer a better specimen than the succeeding extract:

‘We

\* We make a distinction, well understood by the Greek philosophers, between extended substance, and extended body. The human frame, for example, is generated, and corrupted, as body; but as substance it is capable neither of generation, nor of corruption. When we speak of God, we call him the infinite substance; and when we speak of individual beings, we call them bodies. We deny then, that there can be more than one substance; and we treat as extravagant the language of those men, who talk of substances, which are not to be comprehended in that one which is infinite. Enthusiasts, and fanatics, have opposed our doctrines, ever since they have been taught. All the wild theorists of the Pythagorean school raving about their monads, and their incorporeal souls:—All the dreaming visionaries let loose from the Academy, who would have resolved the heavens and earth, the sun and the stars, into mere ideas:—All the raging metaphysicians of the delirious tribe of Plotinus:—All the bigoted, insane believers in oracles, and omens:—All the wonder-working, prophesying, spiritualized, exorcised, and exorcising, maniacs, who became the mad antagonists of these mad pagans—have in their turns been the enemies of our philosophy, and the persecutors of our sect. But we have the consolation of thinking, that we have always endeavoured to consult reason, while our adversaries have been guided by their interests, or their prejudices—by their hopes, or their fears. They found their system upon conjecture, and preserve in it from pride, or obstinacy; we establish ours according to the laws of nature, and adhere to it from the force of conviction, and from the love of truth.

The dialogue contains not the reply to the arguments of Hylus; who, with Spinoza, asserts that there is no agency but that of Nature, and no Deity but matter. Hylus, therefore, maintains doctrines which, in the language of his opponent, leave the soul without the hope of futurity, the universe without a plan devised by wisdom, man without a judge, and nature without a God. We look for the refutation of these doctrines from the acute author himself; at least we find reason for such an expectation in the concluding paragraph:

“Now, O Eugenius, I call upon you to declare your sentiments. Decide between Hylus and myself, for in this dispute you cannot steer a middle course.” “You must forgive me, Theophilus,” said Eugenius, “if upon this occasion I shall speak very concisely and obscurely: upon another occasion I shall hope to explain to you my sentiments, and my system. In the mean time I shall not hesitate in declaring, that the doctrines of Hylus appear to me to be altogether erroneous; and yet, with every wish to support your cause, and with a firm conviction of the truth of the two great principles which you have taught, namely, the existence of a Deity, and the immortality of the soul, I cannot assent to many of your arguments. I do not mean to say, that you spoke ineloquently; but I think you set out with making many injudicious concessions to Hylus. If he did obtain any advantages in this discussion, it has been owing to your imprudence.

*Vernum*

*Verum hec hactenus : cetera quotiescumque voletis, et hoc loco et aliis parata vobis erunt."*

That system of the mechanical philosophers, which supposes the animal spirits to be the immediate instruments by which the soul communicates with the external world, is next laid open before us: but it cannot bear scientific examination: it required not the ability of Mr. D. to overthrow it: it sinks beneath a few of his blows.

Hartley's hypothesis cannot escape the search and scrutiny of this author; who appears to hunt for victims to his cruel criticism. He professes to examine it by its great principles, and how does he perform this? He attacks the *vibratory* part of the doctrine, and says not a word of those other parts which alone render Hartley's book valuable. Is this fair? Dr. Priestley, if we do not mistake, published Hartley's treatise, omitting the doctrine of vibrations; and that doctrine, therefore, is not deemed essential to the author's system. Shall it be denied that Hartley has pointed out, illustrated, and established association as a *law of the mind*; even if it be granted, as it ought to be, that his vibratiuncular system is either false or at best fanciful?—Although we disapprove this chapter, for the above reasons, we must allow that the author has *quizzed* (to use a cant term) the system of vibrations with admirable pleasantry.

If we confess that we have not perused the seventh chapter with much pleasure, it should be remembered that perhaps the preceding one had, in some degree, put in motion the particles of our ill-humour. Abraham Tucker's *Light of Nature* is here first examined: his arguments are refuted; his style is tried by the rules of great dead masters; and his *unrivalled skill in illustration*, according to the assertion of Paley, is weighed and found wanting. Here, in our opinion, the Right Hon. critic is too diffuse, and too rhetorical even when he censures rhetorical flourishes and the gaudy style. We are always happy in being instructed by his comments: but we think that he ought to have destined many of the remarks, which he has interwoven with this chapter, to a separate essay, and to a work of a nature different from that of the *Academical Questions*.

Leibnitz's celebrated system,—celebrated long since, but now little known,—next passes in review. Mr. D. begins by stating, with great perspicuity, its leading and material points, which is effected in a few articles. He then examines Leibnitz's philosophy under three heads: 1st, his hypothesis concerning monads and the sources whence he derived them; secondly, his pre-established harmony; and thirdly, his principle of sufficient reason. This investigation is ably and learn-

edly executed; and from it the author makes the following inference:

From this review of the doctrine of monads and atoms, as it was taught by the ancients, the reader will easily perceive, that Leibnitz has introduced nothing new into this part of his system. His world, like that of Pythagoras, consists of numbers, or of various dispositions and repetitions of the monad. He teaches, like Empedocles, that the primary elements are only to be contemplated by intellect. He drew from Democritus the doctrine of the immortality and the apathy of primordial principles. From the system of Democritus, as well as from that of Epicurus, he might have obtained his notion of the internal energy of monads. Both these last mentioned philosophers could have suggested to him the opinion, that all qualities result from the relative disposition of monads; since both asserted, that all sensible qualities result from the figure, gravity, and relative situation of atoms. Anaximander might have furnished him with his hypothesis concerning the infinity of monads, which contain in themselves all that they seem to acquire. That the living animal never perishes, is the doctrine of Hippocrates; and finally Leibnitz adopts both the language and the philosophy of Aristotle, when he says, *nomen entelechiarum imponi posset omnibus substantiis simplicibus seu monadibus creatis.*

Of Kant, and of his philosophy, something has been heard in England: but Germany has resounded with his high metaphysic fame. It made in this country, we believe, no progress; and indeed it is too remote from simplicity and common sense to suit the plain, unaffected, and sober understanding of an Englishman. We are not averse to the discussion of subjects because they are abstruse or difficult: but if they are perplexed by the intricate combination of hard words and newly invented phrases, we see through and despise the "shallow seeming of verbal phantoms."—Mr. Drummond's review of the Kantian Philosophy, which was erected with the rubbish of the schools, displays great spirit and most entertaining sarcasm. It must, we think, be relished by most readers; who will be inclined to conclude with Mr. D. in the words of Lucretius,

*"Scilicet id totum falsa ratione receptum est."*

The last chapter, of more immediate concern to modern metaphysicians, relates to Dr. Reid's *anti* ideal system. An Idealist, acknowledging only sensations, ideas, and the combination of ideas, would say nothing about agency, or about the power in one being capable of producing change in another: but can the philosopher, who asserts the existence of external objects, avoid using such terms; or even avoid the theory connected with them? A change takes place in the material world, and another takes place in our sensations: why

why are these changes concomitant? Admitting agency in the material world, is no agency necessary to produce changes in our perceptions? Dr. Reid, at variance with his own system, afterward speaks of agency, when he says that external objects *make* impressions on the organ.

Figurative expressions, terms, and phrases, borrowed from one science and applied to another, no doubt introduce confused notions, and make way for *analogical* which is not *strict* reasoning: but how is analogical reasoning to be avoided by the materialist, who lays down his doctrines concerning both corporeal and mental substances?—Abandoning his criticism on Dr. Reid, Mr. Drummond concludes his first volume with remarks on the philosophical system of ideas, and on the impediments which oppose its more general adoption.

We look with considerable expectation for the appearance of the second volume of these *Academical Questions*. It will gratify us to find the title less appropriate to it than to that which is now passing from beneath our observation: that is, we expect in another volume more of Mr. Drummond's real opinions: something which may be called a system, and shall be proposed as truth. We are persuaded that he will not dogmatize, nor teach his disciples, if he shall have any, to revile with opprobrious terms those who dissent from the faith which they profess.

The plan of this volume probably suited the temper and ease of its author: unfettered by the necessity of forming a regular structure, he takes out of that vast collection of error and absurdity, which the industry of preceding philosophers has bequeathed to us, some fanciful notion or wild theory, and shews how it may be tortured and slain. He tries on it the strength of his bow and the keenness of his arrows; and this, as we have already observed, is done not only without any strong emotions, but even with the greatest philosophic indifference. Many readers will censure this want of earnestness; and it may be remarked that the impartiality of Mr. Drummond almost borders on a fault. He proposes, as a sort of controversial pastime, the discussion of the most momentous questions; and whether the subject be idealism or substance, or the existence of a first cause, and whatever be the absurdity of the opinions which he is obliged to controvert, he never loses his equanimity. He would have been a poor persecutor, in the age of persecution! Instead of assuming that character, in the times of hot theologic controversy, his neutrality and moderation would have caused him to be drawn to pieces between Rome and Fidenæ. This spirit we do not blame; we rather wonder at and envy it.



In many parts of the composition, a judgment as cool as that of the author would pronounce the style to be too florid. The progress of the argument and the march of the discussion are also frequently impeded; for in the midst of the most abstruse disquisition, when the attention of the reader is alert and earnest, fancy or learning tempts the author into a digression. Several points would probably have been more ably argued, if Mr. D. had been less classical. These objections, however, are not to be weighed against the general merits of the performance; of which we now take leave with sincere thanks to its author for the instruction and the amusement which it has afforded us. On the score of acuteness, erudition, and splendid diction,—rarely found together, and more rarely in skilful combination,—we know not any work of modern times which ought to rank before the volume intitled *Academical Questions*.

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ART. II. *African Memoranda*: relative to an Attempt to establish a British Settlement on the Island of Bulama, on the Western Coast of Africa, in the Year 1792. With a brief Notice of the neighbouring Tribes, Soil, Productions, &c. and some Observations on the Facility of colonizing that Part of Africa, with a View to Cultivation, and the Introduction of Letters and Religion to its Inhabitants: but more particularly as the Means of gradually abolishing African Slavery. By Captain Philip Beaver, of His Majesty's Royal Navy. 4to. pp. 520. 11. 11s. 6d. Boards. C. and R. Baldwin. 1805.

“It is not in mortals to command success:

But we'll do more, Sempronius,—we'll deserve it.”

Thus might Captain Beaver have exclaimed, during his superintendence of the little colony which proceeded from England with the design of forming a settlement on the island of Bulama, or Bulam, contiguous to the Western coast of Africa. If ability, zeal, fortitude, and perseverance, were ever conspicuous, they were manifested in the conduct of Captain B. on this occasion; and though the plan was unquestionably ill-concerted, and the series of events lamentably disastrous, the object was laudable, and the efforts of the Governor were highly creditable to his patriotism and to his heart. He has given so plain and unvarnished a tale, that we have no doubts of his veracity, though his hardships and exertions appear to be almost incredible. The pictured situation of Robinson Crusoe, on a desert island, is scarcely less melancholy and soul-depressing than was that of Captain B. during the greatest part of his residence on the island of Bulam; and we cannot peruse his

journal without wondering that he survived to tell the tale. If colonization on the Western coast of Africa must be accompanied with such privations and afflicting circumstances, as he and the settlers whom he conducted experienced, few will be disposed to make a second trial.

It is the object, however, of this intrepid officer, while he details the sad history of the Bulama expedition, to lessen the practical impression which it is calculated to produce on the public mind, by explaining the cause of its failure; and by giving such views of the country and the people as may induce Government to resolve on another experiment, with a similar intention, though with more efficient and wisely directed means. Were it in the serious contemplation of our Government to form settlements on the islands of the Western Coast of Africa, actuated by the benevolent design of introducing civilization and its concomitant blessings among the savage Negroes of that immense peninsula, and also for the political purpose of counteracting the plans of the French rulers, developed in M. Golberry's *Travels* \*, respecting the district in question, the facts ascertained by the former superintendant of this unfortunate colony would be worthy of their attention; since, by enumerating the errors committed at the commencement, and the obstacles with which it struggled in endeavouring to complete its design, ideas highly useful to subsequent settlers will be suggested. Still, if it may be admitted that, in the midst of all his misfortunes, Captain B. completely succeeded in establishing the practicability of his plan, it will remain for Government to consider how far its future execution would justify the expence and the loss of lives with which it would inevitably be attended. Much as we wish the abolition of slavery and the promotion of a commendable intercourse with the inhabitants of Africa, we fear that schemes of the nature here proposed possess more of romantic virtue than of true wisdom. The object to be accomplished seems too vast for the means employed, and the good to be effected lies at a remote distance. We hope that, in time, Africa will be civilized: but the occupation by Europeans of a few inconsiderable islands, on a small part of its Western coast, does not promise to make any extensive impression on the sentiments and manners of its inhabitants. In reply, however, it might be said that every thing must have a beginning; and that Africa can only be civilized by bringing her in contact with more enlightened nations, and by establishing a communication between her and the Christian world on principles at least not abhorrent to Christianity.

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\* See Rev. Vol. xlvii. N. S. p. 271.

Such were the views of the projectors of the Bulam expedition, the particulars of which we shall now briefly detail.

In the year 1791, Mr. Beaver, being then a Lieutenant of the Royal Navy, out of employ, and preferring an active life to lounging about the capital, formed several schemes which were not executed, and at last engaged with a few gentlemen in attempting a settlement on the uninhabited island of Bulam, near the mouth of the Grande. Having advertised their plan, many subscribers were soon obtained; and in April 13, 1792, (little more than three months after the commencement of the project,) *two hundred and seventy-five* colonists, including men, women, and children, left England, in three vessels (the *Calypso*, *Hankey*, and *Beggar's Benison*,) for the place of their destination. With such haste and inexperience was this affair concerted, that they illegally proceeded to form a constitution for the future regulation of the colony, without the approbation of Government. The motives, indeed, were highly creditable to the gentlemen concerned, and, if their measures were irregular, they could not be attributed to sedition: for their sole objects were to purchase land in Africa from those who claimed a right to the soil, and not to take forcible possession of it; to try whether it could not be cultivated by free natives, to induce the degraded Africans to labour and industry, and to ameliorate their condition by the introduction of religion and letters. It will easily be supposed that a number of colonists, who were hastily obtained from all quarters by means of public advertisements, did not all enter into these sublime views; and that the majority of them did not weigh the nature of the undertaking, but engaged in it with the hope of exchanging their present ills for some happy region beyond the Atlantic. Scarcely, however, were they embarked when discontents arose; and Mr. Beaver perceived that he had collected individuals whose character and conduct did not augur success. Soon after they sailed, the *Calypso* parted company; and though the vessels were appointed to rendezvous at Teneriffe, previously to their proceeding for Bulam, the *Calypso*, which first arrived at the former island, did not wait for its companions, but made all haste to reach the latter; and its crew having imprudently taken forcible possession of it, they were attacked by the Africans, and several of them were slain and made prisoners. When Mr. Beaver arrived, after an interesting voyage in the *Hankey*, he found the first detachment of settlers dispirited by this melancholy circumstance; and the majority of the adventurers soon resolved on abandoning the colony, in the *Calypso*. He prevailed, however, on a part to persevere in their original intention; and having made a purchase

chase of the island of Bulama (so it is called in Africa) from the neighbouring Kings, he took possession of it on July 19, 1792, with only 86 colonists, (besides 4 seamen and a boy,) who had unanimously voted him their president.

In a journal written on the island, from the sailing of the *Calypso* to its final evacuation on Nov. 29, 1793, Mr. B. presents an afflicting account of their hardships and gradual mortality. Of the 275 persons who sailed from England, in order to settle on the island, there remained to him, after eleven months were elapsed, only three white and two black men, with two boys; who, together with three sailors, made the whole strength of the colony! His own exertions were so severe and unremitting, that it is impossible to give an adequate idea of them without transcribing more of his journal than would be convenient. When he saw the settlers almost daily falling sacrifices to the unhealthiness of the climate, and to despondency of mind, it is surprising that his own firmness remained unshaken; and that he himself should have survived several attacks of fever with which he was afflicted. A memorandum, made on the day following his recovery from a severe illness, will shew the character of the man, and his ardor in the enterprise which he conducted:

‘Between seven and eight in the evening I could no longer articulate; but was seized with a rattling in my throat, which I conceived to be a symptom of my no very distant dissolution. I was still sensible; and, indeed, for an hour after this rattling first seized me. It was now that I heard every one say that it was all over; and that Captain Cox, sitting by the sky light almost immediately over me, said that to-morrow he should have orders to get ready to sail for England. This, now that I am better, Mr. Munden and Mr. Aberdeen, the only two members of the committee, have confirmed; as they had made up their minds to give such orders the moment that I was dead; for neither of them would take charge of the colony, and, indeed, if they would, nobody would have staid when I was gone.

‘I can with truth aver, that if in these moments I had the least wish to live, it was to preserve this colony. Death, if thou never comest clothed in greater terrors, I shall ne’er be afraid to meet thee; for the happiest moments of my existence were those, when I expected to cease to be. May my future life be such as to enable me always to meet thee thus!

‘About nine, I fell into a dose; and did not awake until late next morning, the 16th, when I was out of danger; and am this day well enough to sit up a little.’

Another memorandum, dated Dec. 18, 1792, inserted on his recovering from a subsequent fever, will display his very uncomfortable situation:

'Continue to get better. A fine breeze from the N. E. Peter and my man continue at work; but what is their work, to what we have to do? It is like a drop of water compared with the ocean. Peter is weak with a slight flux, and Watson is not very strong. Died, and was buried; Joseph Riches. Myself well enough to walk about a little; the N. E. wind continued to blow fresh all day, the therm. in the morning was 72, and has not risen higher than 77; in short, it has been the coolest and pleasantest day that I have yet experienced on the island. Its bracing coolness has almost cured me, who have been from day light till dark exposed to it, while our indolent sick have been pent up all day in their stinking eating house, which has scarcely been cleaned since they came on shore, rather than exert themselves so much as to go into this renovating air. In the evening, when we leave off work, Peter goes on board the cutter; and my man and myself remain to defend the block-house! 'tis well we are not attacked. Since the departure of the Hankey, I have had no one to speak to, no conversation. I do not think it safe to shew lights, and therefore cannot read in the evening; indeed, my head at present could not bear it; so that, after we leave off work, I sit about two hours alone in the dark, in sullen deliberation on what we are to do on the morrow, and then go to bed. How different this, from the life I have been accustomed to!'

The note which follows, respecting the colony, is not less depressing:

'Since the first of this month, of 19 men, 4 women, and 5 children, we have buried 9 men, 3 women, and 1 child, which is, except one, half of the whole colony. It is melancholy no doubt, but many have absolutely died through fear. More courage, and greater exertions, I firmly believe, would have saved many of them; but a lowness of spirits, a general despondency, seems to possess every body. When taken ill, they lie down and say that they know they shall die; and, what is very remarkable, I have never yet known one recover after having, in such a manner, given himself up.'

To relieve the colonists in their severe labour, and to supply the deficiencies occasioned by the ravages of mortality, Mr. B. hired Grumetas, or native African servants; who were very useful in burning the wood, in clearing and inclosing the ground intended to be planted, and in erecting the block-house which was intended as the citadel, or place of shelter and defence. At last, however, the number of settlers being reduced to six, of whom three were ill and one was lame, he was obliged to yield to their determination to quit the island; after the block-house had been constructed, and nearly 15 acres of ground were cleared and inclosed. At his departure, he makes this memorandum:

'I must confess that in going out of the harbour I feel a great reluctance at being obliged to abandon a spot which I have certainly very much improved; and to see all my exertions, my cares, and anxieties

xieties for the success of this infant colony entirely thrown away. But, at the same time, I do feel an honest consciousness that every thing that could be reasonably expected from me has been done, to secure, though without success, its establishment.'

As Mr. Beaver seems to have been the very soul (we might almost say the body and soul) of this expedition, we shall give a full length view of this indefatigable colonist; and who can peruse this representation without perceiving how much it is possible for a man to do for himself and others!

'Although I am not an advocate for Rousseau's mode of educating his *Emilius*, yet I cannot help thinking that the more practical knowledge one can acquire, the better: it makes a man acquainted with his own resources, and a less dependent being. I therefore, so far as relates to myself only, consider my time on the island of Bulama, (independent of the motives which led me to, or kept me there,) instead of being thrown away, as the best spent period of my life; for I was so completely thrown upon myself, as to be obliged to rely more upon my own individual resources and exertions, than I otherwise, probably, ever should have done.

'For one year of that time I had not an individual to converse with; and lived almost as much the life of a hermit, as if there had not been another human being upon the island. It is true that I set every body to work, and directed them what to do, but there our intercourse ceased: their work done, the grumetas retired to their houses, the settlers to their rooms, except at the latter part of my stay upon the island, when, in order to keep up for Mr. Hood, the only surviving subscriber, some degree of respect, which he appeared to me to be fast losing, I always had him to dinner with me, which occupied the hour between one and two.

'Besides, during the seventeen months that I remained on the island, I had occasion, and indeed was obliged, to practise more occupations and professions, (though I never before had a tool of any kind in my hand,) than would otherwise have ever been the case, in the whole course of my life To wit:

- '1st. Carpenter.—In all its branches, from that of making a broom-stick, to that of building a house.
- '2d. Joiner.—In such works as making chairs, tables, stools, shelves, and cupboards, &c.
- '3d. Sawyer.—Which I found the most difficult of the whole.
- '4th. Brick-maker
- '5th. Tanner.—When I left the island I had just finished tanning a number of goat skins, for the bottoms of a set of chairs.
- '6th. Thatcher.
- '7th. Chandler.—I made candles, both dips and moulds.
- '8th. Rope-maker.—I was obliged to make a great deal of rope before I could leave the island with the cutter.
- '9th. Sail-maker.
- '10th. Caulker.
- '11th. Plasterer.

'12th.

\* 12th. Carcase butcher.—It more than once fell to my lot to skin and cut up a bullock, which had been killed for the colonists.

\* Among those which are dignified by the name of professions, may be reckoned,

\* 1st. Engineer.—If the fixing upon the ground, and tracing the lines of a square fort, with a bastion at each angle, will confer it.

\* 2d. Architect.—Inasmuch as the drawing the plan, elevation, and section of the block house, ere it was commenced, can entitle me to it.

\* 3d. Surveyor.

\* 4th. Apothecary.—With this difference, in practice, that I never made a bill.

Indeed that practice was confined to one disease only, fever. To each man that came to me with it, I gave four grains of tartar emetic, or fifteen of ipecacuanha, which having operated, he had as much bark in Port wine, as he could swallow, while the fit was not on him; to women and children the dose was less, in proportion to their strength and constitution. This must be understood as being done after the surgeon had left us only, and this was the utmost extent of my sins in this profession.

\* I might greatly increase both lists were it necessary. Some of the employments were not, certainly, very dignified; however, to make amends, I was honoured with very fine, nay magnificent, titles. The Portuguese always called me governor; the Bijugas, capitano; but all the other nations, king, (rey.) If, therefore, I felt humbled by the low employment of stripping a bullock of its hide, I might the next hour not only recover my importance, but feel more exalted than I had before felt humbled, by being accosted with the title of rey. And again, if the title of king should turn my head with vanity and pride, I might the next day be brought to a more just estimation of my consequence by being obliged to cook for the colonists.

Long as is this catalogue of trades and professions, which Mr. B. followed during his residence on the island of Bulam, it is not complete. He should have added that of *Clergyman*; for, whenever his health would permit, he read prayers to the Colony on Sundays. To such a statement of particulars, no motto could have been more appropriate than that which is prefixed to the journal: "*La condition de ceux qui gouvernent n'est pas autre que celle de ce Cacique, à qui l'on demandait s'il avait des esclaves, et qui répondit: Des esclaves, je n'en connais qu'un dans ma contrée, et cet esclave là c'est moi.*"

Raynal Hist. Phil et Pol.

For the publication of his journal, Captain B. makes a very candid and ingenuous apology. His mind is prepared for encountering the charge of egotism, and perhaps that of vanity: but

but liberal people, and those who wish to read such accounts as advance the knowledge of human nature by affording a real insight into the hearts and characters of men, will not be inclined to blame his conduct in this respect. If he shews himself distinguished from the common herd, we give him full credit for truth of representation; since a man of the ordinary stamp would never have imposed such a task on himself as Mr. Beaver assumed, nor have executed it under such discouragements.

Having displayed the transactions of the Colony during its short and melancholy occupation of the Island of Bulam, the author employs himself in answering objections, and in recounting the information which his experience enabled him to obtain respecting that region of Western Africa which fell under his observation. Among the causes of the failure of the expedition, he enumerates as the principal, 'the carrying out men of the most infamous character and vicious habits—the arriving on the coast of Africa in the rainy season,—and the omitting to carry out the frame and materials of a house or houses, sufficient to secure the whole colony on their arrival from the rains and from the sun.' The secondary causes he states to be the act of hostility of the natives on the crew of the *Calypso*, the ravages of the fever, and the general despondency. Yet, though a series of untoward circumstances forced him to abandon the enterprize, he flatters himself that their labour was not uselessly employed, and that the time spent on the island was not altogether lost. He thinks that he succeeded in effecting a favourable alteration in the minds of the Africans relative to the character of the Europeans, and in particular of the English. He regards also the material points of inquiry as completely established, viz. that tropical productions can be propagated on the island of Bulama and on the adjacent shores; that this can be performed by means of free natives; and that, by cultivation and commerce, civilization can be introduced among them. From being able to accomplish what they did effect, and considering the incompetency of their force to command respect, he infers that, had the expedition been planned with more wisdom, and executed with more energy, his conclusions would have been substantiated by important facts.

The chapter, which is devoted to a description of the island of Bulama, represents it as highly advantageous for colonization. It is stated to be

'About seven leagues in length, its breadth various, from five to two leagues; the land rises gradually, generally speaking, from the shore, to the moderate height of about 50 feet above the level of the sea, and appears to be covered with wood, though there are some  
natural



natural savannahs in it, and some places cleared by its former inhabitants, or late Bijuga lords; the soil is every where rich and prolific, and affords ample pasturage to innumerable elephants, buffaloes, deer, and other wild animals which graze on its surface; the sea, which surrounds it, is sheltered from violent agitation in every direction, and abounds with excellent fish of various kinds; in short, here reigns abundance of every thing requisite to the comforts of savage life.

'Its general appearance is that of the most luxuriant vegetation. It seems to have been produced in one of nature's happiest moods.'

Of the territory comprized between Cape Roxo and Ghinala, an extent of about 180 miles, the writer says that 'in the whole world, he does not believe that one can be found more rich and fertile.' The animals, as well as vegetables, are of various kinds; among the former are Elephants, and on these huge yet peaceable animals several attacks were made by the colony: but the author was so much affected by the cries of two which they succeeded in killing, that he resolved never more to annoy them. Among the vegetables which were cultivated, 'rice, yams, manioc, Indian corn or maize, ground nuts, plantains, bananas, pumpkins, water melons, oranges, limes, pine apples, papaws, &c. &c. are the chief; and of those which are wild, the sugar cane, cotton shrub, and indigo plant seem the most valuable: besides which, there are trees of almost every size and texture.'

Though Captain B. is adverse to the Slave trade, he protests against all harsh measures for hastening its abolition; and so judicious are his sentiments respecting the principles which ought to operate on those who should endeavour to establish a colony on the coast of Western Africa, that we shall transcribe them:

'First, that no land be ever taken from the natives by force; and that we do not ever make a settlement without their consent. We should even re-purchase the land already bought rather than our right to it be disputed.

'The second is, that no person can be employed as a slave in any of our settlements, nor on board any ship or vessel belonging to the colonists. At the same time that the employment of slaves is prohibited to the European colonists, these must also be forbidden to interfere in the smallest degree whatever with the employment of them by the native kings or chiefs, in their own towns or territories. Nothing must be done against their independence. The abolition of that execrable trade must be left to the gradual, but sure, operation of reason, and example. Should we endeavour to prevent the native chiefs from selling slaves; so sudden, and so violent, a check to one of their immemorial customs, the reason, the policy, or the justice of which, it is impossible for them at first to comprehend, would ill dispose them towards us; and make them either treacherous friends or open enemies to the success of our undertaking; at the same time that

that not one slave less would be annually sold, notwithstanding our ill advised and absurd attempts to prevent it ; and by such means the slave trade never will be abolished. Whereas if these people are left to themselves, and to the operation of reason and example, without the smallest shock to any of their customs or prejudices, I question very much if a slave will ever be seen in any native town of the colony at the expiration of fifteen or twenty years. But if a misguided zeal for the abolition of slavery be manifested, it will tend to prolong its continuance, and the colony never can, and never will flourish. The absurdity of very well meaning persons, in thinking that they can overcome vices, customs, or prejudices, immemorially rooted in an unenlightened people, by shocking, instead of gradually enlightening their understandings, has done a great deal of mischief already. To begin by telling a native chief, the instant you have got into his country, that of his six wives he must put away five, because it is a great sin, and forbidden by the laws of God, to have more than one, will certainly astonish the chief, but will not induce him to part from his wives. As to the word sin, it is impossible that it can convey any idea to him ; it is not within the limits of possibility for him to comprehend the idea which it is meant to convey ; and of the laws of God he will have as little knowledge. But he will know that it is the custom, and ever has been, in this country, for every man, to keep as many wives as he can afford ; and that he is respected in proportion to the number of them which he maintains. Now to insist upon his parting from the cause of his respect, without assigning any comprehensible reason for his so doing, betrays a more barbarous mind than the one intended to be enlightened. If, after this, the same person goes on, and tells the chief, that drunkenness is also a sin, and that he must give up drinking spirits ; in short, that he will not sell him any, nor suffer any to be sold to him for the future ; the chief, who has been accustomed to drink spirits, and to see every one else do the same, when it was to be procured, will begin to think this European a little unreasonable ; and will not be desirous of having him for a neighbour. But if the European goes on, and tells him that he must change his religion and become a Christian, or else when he dies that he will be roasted like a yam, always in torment but never thoroughly done ; this chief will probably inquire what he means by being a Christian, that he may avoid this roasting. When his European instructor goes on from one dogma to another, all alike unintelligible in the present intellectual state of the chief, till he finishes with the doctrine of the Trinity, the belief in which, he tells this chief, is essential to his salvation : the latter, who thought him unreasonable at first, now thinks him outrageously so ; and that he is either a mad man, a fool, or an impostor ; and to get rid of people professing such doctrines, will be his constant endeavour. Absurd as such conduct must appear, I have seen conduct towards a native chief yet more so ; and much mischief has already been done by the fanatical zeal of some misguided people. I could give instances, but they are so incredibly extravagant, that they would scarcely find credit among sober minded people. If conduct like this be pursued in the intended colony, it will never succeed, and the condition of the natives will never be improved.

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The Spanish mode of Emancipation is strongly recommended:

• That is, to suffer a slave to work out his freedom by days. This is done when, from habits of industry, he has acquired so much property as will amount to the value of the sixth part of his annual labour, (Sunday not being reckoned) with which he buys his freedom for Monday; having this day to his own use, the exercise of the same industry will afterwards enable him to buy Tuesday; and these two days will sooner enable him, by the same means, to purchase Wednesday; and so on till he has completely emancipated himself. From this mode of emancipation I cannot see any danger, as it can be effected only by the industrious, and habits of industry once taken up are not likely to be laid by. Blacks who have so freed themselves would in all probability prove good subjects. If it be said that, freedom once acquired, there is no motive for the continuance of those industrious habits, I say that freedom once acquired, there are other motives which will operate almost as strongly: and those are, in his new situation, to acquire respect; and this will generally be done by the acquisition of wealth, which will require the exercise of similar industry. Whether this be ever practised in our own colonies I do not know. The above mode might possibly be improved by admitting the purchase of half a day, or even one working hour, at a time.\*

We have no reason for supposing that Government has any present intention to attempt a settlement on the Western Coast of Africa: but Captain Beaver, being aware of the design of the French, which M. Golberry has fully evinced, regards it as a duty which he owes to his country, to point out with what facility the plans of the enemy might be frustrated, and a colony established, as important in every point of view as any which we now possess. He is jealous of French influence and intrigue on the return of a peace; and he sounds the alarm, in order that we may not, by ignorance and inactivity, be excluded from the most valuable region of Western Africa.

A handsome map of the coast is prefixed.

ART. III. *A Series of Essays introductory to the Study of Natural History.* By Fenwick Skrimshire, M.D., lately President of the Natural History Society of Edinburgh; Author of "A Series of Popular Chemical Essays."\* 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1805.

THESE Essays, which form the outline of an intended course of public lectures, are neither elementary nor strictly systematical: but they present, in plain and popular language, a very abridged view of the extent and general di-

\* See Rev. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 320.

visions of Natural History, interspersed with various and sometimes important remarks. The first two relate to the objects, utility, and threefold division of the subject; the next seven are occupied with short explanations of the classes of the animal kingdom, according to the Linnéan arrangement, and with a few cursory observations on the individuals which they comprehend; in the succeeding three, the author hastily glances at the sexual system of plants, vegetable physiology, and the useful application of botanical knowledge; and the last exhibits a very imperfect sketch of the Wernerian mineralogy, accompanied by a few geological reflections.

Although Dr. Skrimshire has thus followed the ordinary track of systematic writers, the more natural order seems to be the reverse; namely, to commence with the inorganic masses of matter, then to pass to the vegetable, and lastly to the animal kingdom. On more occasions than one, we have remarked something bordering on an affected contempt of classification and nomenclature, as if any rational inquirer after truth ever regarded these as ultimate objects of pursuit. At the same time, their unspeakable importance in enabling the student to discriminate species, to generalize facts, and to arrive at interesting conclusions, undoubtedly renders them worthy of no common share of attention. Should a naturalist even confine his lucubrations to his vocabulary, he would still render a service to others, and thus be intitled to the public gratitude.

The disproportionate measures of space, which the present essayist has allotted to the various sections of his subject, must likewise be obvious even to a superficial reader. The very short essay on mineralogy appears to have been added rather to complete the nominal series, than to afford the requisite information; and the history of the more imperfect tribes of living creatures, which is susceptible of so much amusing and astonishing illustration from the pages of Trembley, Bonnet, and Spallanzani, is extremely meagre and unsatisfactory.—As the Doctor is, in general, sufficiently guarded against the admission of marvellous allegations, we were surprised to find ourselves involved all at once in the atmosphere of the ‘poison tree of death:’

‘In the island of Java, it is said that there is a tree called the upas, which affords a gum of the most poisonous quality. With this the natives arm all their warlike weapons, and execute their condemned malefactors. An arrow, or a lancet, the point of which has been dipped in this gum, or in a solution of the gum in spirits, inflicts a deadly wound, be it in size and to appearance ever so slight. The person thus wounded becomes almost immediately convulsed, and dies. A still more wonderful effect of this poisonous tree is, that

that it continually emits effluvia of so poisonous a quality, that no animal can live long within the distance of sixteen miles of it. It is almost certain death to approach the tree, and none but condemned malefactors ever attempt it. When the wind remains steadily blowing in the same direction in which the malefactor approaches, so as to waft the effluvia from him, he stands some chance of reaching the tree, procuring the gum, and returning in safety; in which case, he receives a pardon, his liberty, and a reward. Not above one in ten, it is said, accomplishes this dangerous journey.'

We hope that not above one in ten thousand will give credence to such wild assertions. In the days of ignorance and superstition, the formation of *mandrakes*, under the gibbet, was ascribed to the blood of 'condemned malefactors;' and such a tale, if originally concocted by the interested phlegm of a Dutch agent, and afterward embellished by the lively fancy of a Darwin, might have been registered by Dr. Skrimshire without a comment.

We present our readers with a few samples of the author's pious and economical remarks; which, if not novel, are at least ingenious, and may serve to repress the doubts of the sceptic and the petulance of the sciolist:

'Many birds of this order, (*Passeres*) and particularly the common sparrow, have been considered by narrow-minded men as destructive, useless animals; and Nature has been impiously taxed with creating them with the sole intent of destroying other useful productions, without answering in themselves any one good and useful purpose. Even Buffon has described the Sparrow, as a bird that is extremely destructive, its plumage entirely useless, its flesh indifferent food, its notes grating to the ear, and its familiarity and petulance disgusting. We shall, however, sufficiently satisfy ourselves of the error of such impious declaimers, if we do but examine some of the propensities of these birds.

'The sparrow, for instance, amply repays the husbandman and gardener for his petty thefts, by destroying innumerable insects. It has been calculated from actual observations, that a single pair of sparrows, during the time of feeding their young, will destroy about four thousand caterpillars weekly. Only consider, then, what myriads of these pernicious insects are destroyed annually by one species of birds.

'We can hardly doubt but that the total extinction of the race of sparrows, provided the breed of other birds of similar habits was not increased, would soon prove the cause of an universal dearth. Every caterpillar, whose life was thus preserved, would, when arrived to its perfect winged state, lay several hundred eggs, which immense increase of all the various caterpillars, that the sparrow is known to search for and devour, would in a few years be equal to the destruction of every blade of grass and every leaf.

'The swallow, by its unexampled destruction of other insects that would poison the very atmosphere in which we live, preserves the nice  
balance

balance that is requisite for the happiness and harmony of the whole. These birds again afford a necessary source of food to others, which answer evident and important purposes in the grand scheme of Nature.'—

'The brown or chestnut-coloured beetle, known by the name of *cock-chaffer*, is met with in all parts of this country. It is seen during great part of the summer, but more plentifully in May and June, and is known in some places by the name of *May-bug*. It flies only towards evening, and lodges during the day-time under the leaves of trees, which it greedily devours, and is sometimes in such vast numbers as to defoliate whole districts. It is, however, in the grub state that this insect commits the most serious devastations. The beetle lays its eggs in the earth, from which proceed white or rather bluish grubs, that feed on the roots of grass, corn, and other vegetables, during the whole of the summer. When the winter approaches, it digs its way further down, generally several feet, sometimes two or three fathoms or more, and there lies torpid and without food, beyond the influence of the frost, till the spring approaches. When vegetation has advanced, these devouring grubs ascend to the surface, and repeat their ruinous devastation. This they do for four, some say six, years successively, before they change to the chrysalis state, which takes place at the bottom of their holes far from the surface, in a kind of case formed of the mould and a slimy secretion that glues it together. The chrysalis remains here till the succeeding May, when the beetle fully formed, but at first with soft elytra or wing-cases, bursts forth, and ascends to the surface of the ground, from whence it soon takes its flight. Like other insects, that are so many years in coming to perfection, the cock-chaffer is only now and then numerous enough to be detrimental to the crops or foliage in any great extent. It has, however, frequently excited considerable alarm, and even drawn the attention of governments to it, as a nuisance. Rewards have been offered for the discovery of an effectual mode of destroying them, but none such has yet been made. We can only offer the following hints. When land is ploughed up in the spring, if the weather be warm, the grubs have arrived so near to the surface as to be turned up with the plough, and in some seasons hundreds of them are thus exposed, in which case rooks and some other birds will be sure to detect and devour them, and should not therefore be driven away, even though the corn should be springing up. They will be turned up in still greater numbers in land first ploughed from the sward. Would it not be worth the trouble to plough fallow land once or twice during the summer, if it have been infested with these grubs the preceding season? In meadow land it has been proposed to drown them in their holes by overflowing it; but this, where practicable, would, I apprehend, be attended with no success, except where a bed of clay existed at a proper depth to retain the water for a considerable time. The most efficacious way to prevent their increase is to employ proper persons to take the flies in May and June, before they have laid their eggs; which, though it appears an endless task, may be done with very considerable effect, by shaking and beating the trees and hedges in the middle of the day. Children will be able to do this,

and, as has been proved by experiment, will, for a trifling reward, suppose a penny a hundred, bring some thousands per day gathered in a single village. Domestic fowls of all kinds are particularly fond of these beetles, so that the expense of collecting them would be fully compensated by the quantity of food they would afford in this way.—

In the sowing of wheat, drilling and dibbling are adopted by some, to save a part of the seed wheat, and to prevent the plants crowding each other in their growth. How far these plans answer, seems not yet to be determined; but I cannot omit mentioning an experiment of Mr. Charles Miller, of Cambridge, which shews to what an astonishing extent the increase of wheat may be carried by care. On the 8th of August, he took up a plant of wheat, which had been sown in the beginning of June, and he divided it into eighteen parts, each of which were transplanted separately; about the latter end of September they were again removed, and divided into sixty seven roots. In the end of March following, and beginning of April, they were separated into five hundred plants, which yielded twenty one thousand one hundred and nine ears; and this single grain thus yielded five hundred and seventy thousand fold, the produce measuring three pecks and three quarters, and weighing forty-seven pounds.

Want of room must be our excuse for withholding several other interesting passages; especially from the entomological sections, which form the most pleasing and prominent portion of this very compendious and rather tame performance.

ART. IV. *The Landed Property of England*, an Elementary and Practical Treatise; containing the Purchase, the Improvement, and the Management of Landed Estates. By Mr. Marshall. 4to. pp. 444. 2l. 2s. Boards. Nicol, Longman and Co., &c.

ART. V. *The Management of Landed Estates*: a general Work; for the Use of professional Men: being an Abstract of the more enlarged Treatise of Landed Property, recently published. By Mr. Marshall. 8vo. pp. 441. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1806.

**A**DVICE founded on sound judgment and extensive experience ought ever to be regarded with deference; and of this quality are the hints addressed to gentlemen of landed property in the volume before us. Mr. Marshall has been long known to agriculturists by the diligence of his researches, by the accuracy of his experiments, and by the perspicuity of his observations; and those who have followed him in his different surveys of the several districts, or departments, into which he considers England as divided, will not be displeased at receiving from him a general work on rural subjects. In addition to the author's *Minutes* as a private farmer, and to his remarks

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as a district surveyor, we are to add his experience in the management of landed property on a large scale since the year 1780; by which he has been enabled to digest that series of instruction which is here offered to the attention of country gentlemen. This treatise boasts of so lucid an arrangement, and of such clear views of every subject which naturally falls under consideration in a discussion on Landed Property, that it is very properly calculated for a text-book in a Rural Institute.

In addressing himself to landlords and tenants, Mr. M. enforces the principles of wisdom and true policy, gives the rules of practice like a man who is skilled in the art which he teaches, and delivers his opinions on controverted points accompanied by the reasons on which they are founded. Many of his remarks peculiarly apply to gentlemen of extensive property; and the country at large is interested in their adoption of that line of conduct which is here sketched out for them, since it respects the improvement of the tenantry as well as that of the farms which they occupy. His 'cautionary suggestions to the inexperienced possessor, who has recently purchased an estate, or become heir to one; or who—having escaped from a round of dissipation, or awakened from the slumbers of retirement, or of listless rank—has determined to fill his hereditary station in life by improving an estate, which he may have long been neglecting,' are creditable to his judgment and integrity; and if people of this class can be induced to read them, they must surely be roused to the discharge of the obvious duties of their station. 'As unpardonable it would be in the possessor of a kingdom to be ignorant of state affairs, and unmindful of the ministers who reside about his court;—or in the commanding officer of a regiment to be a stranger to his men, a priest to his parishioners, or a shepherd to his flock;—as for the possessor of a tenanted estate to be ignorant of territorial concerns, and a stranger to his lands and their occupiers.'

After an analytical view of the several species of landed property, the author proceeds to a consideration of his subject under the three grand divisions mentioned in the title, viz. *Purchase, Improvement, and Management*.

In the business of *Purchase*, Mr. M. includes all that respects both the valuation and the transfer of Estates, enumerates the difficulties which attend the former, with the skill which is requisite to surmount them, and, respecting the latter, lays down the true principles of dealing. He advises that 'before an offer be made, especially for a large purchase, it is no more than common prudence, in a man who is not himself a judge, to call in twofold assistance: a provincial valuer, to estimate



mate its fair market price, to the tenants of the neighbourhood in which it lies; and a man of more general knowledge, to check his valuation, and to estimate the improvements of which the lands are evidently capable.

‘In an elementary work, it will be proper to enumerate the particulars which give value to an estate, and which require to be considered in its estimation.’

When enumerating the particulars which give value to an estate, the author recommends a purchaser to consider not only the quantity and intrinsic quality of the land, but also its situation even with respect to temperature; for Mr. M. remarks that

‘In the *temperature* of situation, whether it is given by elevation, aspect, or exposure, we find a powerful influence, which is capable of altering, exceedingly, the value of lands. The same soil and subsoil, which we not unfrequently see, on exposed mountains, and hanging to the north, and which in that situation are not worth more than five shillings an acre, would, if situated in a sheltered vale district, and “lying well to the sun,” be worth twenty shillings, or a greater rent. Even on *climate* something considerable depends. In the south of England, harvest is generally a month earlier, than in the northern provinces; though it is not regulated, exactly, by the climate, or latitude, of places: a circumstance that requires to be attended to, by those who estimate the values of estates. For an early harvest is not only advantageous in itself, but it gives time to till the ground, or to take an autumnal crop; which are advantages that a late harvest will not so well admit of. And another kind of temperature of situation has still more influence on the value of lands; namely, the *moistness of the atmosphere*. A moist situation not only gives an uncertain and often a late harvest, but renders it difficult and hazardous; as is too frequently experienced on the western coasts of this island.

‘Even in the *turn of surface* we find exercise for the judgement. Lands lying with too steep or too flat surfaces (especially retentive arable lands) are of less value than those which are gently shelving, so as to give a sufficient current to surface water, without their being difficult to cultivate. Steep-lying lands are not only troublesome and expensive, under the operations of tillage, but in carrying on manures and getting off the produce. Lands lying with an easy descent, or on a gently billowy surface, may be worth more by many pounds an acre, purchase money, than others of the same intrinsic quality, hanging on a steep.’

Men of the law, who are frequently employed in the purchase of estates, may not relish their exclusion from the first part of the business; though the liberal members of the profession will readily subscribe to the justness of the succeeding remarks:

‘Artifice and trick are what no man of good principles can practise. Though there may be “no friendship in trade,” there is a candor and a degree of liberality, which even men of trade employ. Among the

the higher order of merchants in London, and doubtless in other commercial places, the principle of fair-dealing is singularly conspicuous. And among the superior class of lawyers, it is not unfrequently found. It is among half-honest men of business, and especially of the law, that we find subtilty and subterfuge, and what might be termed the legerdmain of business, carried on. And if a desired estate has unfortunately fallen into *such* hands, a superior degree of caution is necessary. There may, indeed, be cases, in which it may be proper to call in the assistance of those who are professionally on their guard against trick and artifice, to counteract the intentions, and frustrate the evil designs, of dishonest men.

‘ But, in ordinary cases, it would be equally wise and equally prudent, in a man of fortune, to employ the person whom he intends to draw up his marriage articles, to carry on the business of courtship, and close the bargain of love, as to employ him whom he intends to examine titles, and adjust the deed of conveyance, to carry on the business of purchasing an estate ;—of whose value and uses he is professionally ignorant. The irresolution, want of decision, the consequent mistakes, and the necessary delays, that will always attend the negotiations of men who are conscious of a want of knowledge in the subject they are employed to treat on, must ever tend to the disadvantage of their employers. I have known so many instances of disadvantages arising from suffering mere men of the law to intermeddle in the purchases of lands, before the preliminaries of agreement have been adjusted, that no apology is due to the legal profession for these introductory observations.’

Though, however, Mr. M. disapproves the interference of lawyers in the previous measures of valuation, he enforces the necessity of their assistance in examining titles and drawing up the contract ; observing that ‘ an upright conveyancer is one of the most useful and honourable characters in civilized society.’ Before he dismisses the subject of deeds, he adverts to a matter of the greatest importance, viz. *the preservation of titles* ; which, excepting in two counties, is strangely neglected. The hint is not new, but it should be repeated till it engages the serious attention of Parliament, which it certainly ought to receive without loss of time :

‘ In Scotland, deeds of conveyance, and other deeds, are registered, in one magnificent building, whose internal economy is as admirably adapted to its design, as its outward form is beautiful. And, in England, there are two counties (Yorkshire and Middlesex) which are termed *register counties* ; in which abstracts of deeds are preserved ; and so arranged as to be readily referred to. Hence, in cases where the original deeds are destroyed, or lost, these registered abstracts are sufficient evidences of their having existed, and capable of securing the titles of estates to their rightful owners ; and are moreover valuable, in preventing fraudulent practices ; particularly respecting mortgages. Nevertheless, the other counties of England remain, from reign to reign, destitute of these advantages.

‘ Without blaming the supineness of the past, or saying any thing of the measures of the present times, let us look forward to the future, — and hope that a patriot administration,—that men who shall have the permanent good of the country in view, and a regard for its welfare after their ministry shall be ended, will extend this partial benefit to the kingdom at large.

‘ After the advantages of an universal register of landed property have been experienced a more summary and less intricate mode of transfer may be struck out. NATIONAL RECORDS, analogous to the court rolls of manors, may, for small properties at least, be found eligible. And TRANSFER OFFICES of *real*, as of *ideal*, property may be established.’

Under the head of *Improvement*, the author particularizes the reclaiming of watery lands,—appropriating commonable lands,—consolidating detached property,—laying out estates,—laying out farm lands,—laying out individual farms,—improving farm lands, by screen plantations, by inclosing open grounds, by guarding river banks, and by watering grass and arable lands, by well-constructed homestalls, by good roads, &c.—improving woodlands,—improving waters,—and improving mines and quarries.

To that useful department of rural improvement, *Draining*, Mr. M. has sedulously devoted himself; and his details are not less scientific than applicable to practice. A series of woodcuts illustrate this judicious agriculturist’s observations.

Discordant opinions having been advanced on the question respecting the most eligible sizes of farms, considered as a branch of political economy, Mr. Marshall’s statement merits transcription; since, without declamation, it affords that aspect of the subject which is conformable to good sense and enlightened experience :

‘ One party asserts that all farms should be *large*, the other that all farms should be *small*. The first is chiefly composed of men of public spirit, who have turned their attentions to agriculture; and, having perceived that farms of magnitude, carried on by men of judgment, spirit, and capital, abound in corn and cattle of the highest qualities, conclude, without examining further into the subject, that all farms ought to be large. The other party, coming forward with equal pretensions for the public good, consists of minor gentlemen, the clergy and other professional men, tradesmen, and others in middle life, who live in towns; and, finding the prices of poultry and eggs and other good things greatly enhanced of late years, imagine that the modern enlargement of farms must be the cause; and call out loudly for a division of large farms: in order, it may be fairly inferred, that articles of luxury may become plentiful:—not regarding, or perhaps not knowing, what an expenditure of poor men’s food is occasioned by the rearing and fattening of poultry. The same barley or other grain which has been used in rearing and fattening a fowl, to supply one dish

of an epicure's dinner, would have furnished a laborer's cupboard with bread, for several days.

But admitting, what is obvious, that farms of magnitude, cultivated by wealthy and skilful men, furnish the markets with a greater proportion of the common necessities of life, than small ones in the hands of poverty and ignorance. it is but common prudence to examine into the effects which would follow a general enlargement of farms, to be managed by wealthy men; and to conceive how the markets would be supplied, under such a regulation, before it be carried into effect.

If, at present (1801) when the country contains farms of all magnitudes, and cultivators of every description, there is a general cry against farmers, for keeping back their corn from market, what evil and outrage might not be expected, were all the lands of the kingdom in the hands of the wealthy? If the prices of grain after harvest should not meet their expectations, they would, in consequence, defer to thrash out more than for their own uses. And although they might have cause of repentance, the ensuing summer, this would not relieve the distresses of the famished poor, in the mean time.

On the contrary, were all the farm lands of the country, in the hands of the needy, the reverse would be the consequence. Presently, after harvest, the produce would be hurried to market, too fast for the consumption; and the surplus would necessarily fall into the hands of dealers; who, beside reserving, on all occasions, an allowable profit, would have it in their power to fix their own prices, during the summer months.

Either of these extremes would be productive of serious evil. What the community require, with respect to farm produce, is to have the markets regularly supplied, by the *growers*,—the immediate producers,—whether of vegetable or of animal food; without its passing through the hands of middle men—unnecessarily.

Hence it is evident, that to obtain a regular supply of the corn market, by the growers themselves, throughout the year, cultivators of different descriptions are requisite:—needy men, who want an immediate supply of money, after harvest, to pay servants wages and michaelmas rents: men without affluence, who thrash out their corn in the winter months: and opulent, purse-proud, speculative men, to supply the markets, during summer and early autumn. And this most desirable order of things the country happily enjoys, at present,—in a considerable degree.

For, in a general view of the country, in this point, no great alterations are required; though, examined in detail, it admits of some improvement, in this respect. There are districts which abound too much in small farms, others in large ones; and some in farms much too large for accurate management.

If we view this subject in the light of good government, and the permanent welfare of the country, a similar gradation in the sizes of farms appears to conform with right reason. The tenantry of a country may be said to occupy the wide space in society, which intervenes between laborers and men of landed property: and, surely, they ought to form a regular chain between them. But make the farms of the country either uniformly large, or uniformly small, a

number of links would be wanting. In the former case, particularly, a wide breach or chasm would be formed,—a void space,—between a numerous peasantry and their petty lords: a state of civilized society, this, which has no foundation, I believe, either in reason or sound politics:—which, I conceive, require a regular gradation from the peasant to the prince, and from the highest to the lowest in society; such a one as we fortunately find, in this country, at present.

‘ Lastly, viewing this subject in a moral light, the present order of things appears to be nearly right. If farms were either uniformly large, or uniformly small, industry, frugality and emulation (the sinews and nerves of society) would, among the lower classes in agriculture, lose their stimulus. If a farm servant, or a laborer, saved a few pounds, or had fifty or a hundred pounds left him, he *could not* employ them in his own line of life. He would either dissipate them, live on them as an idler, or carry them into some other line of business. Whereas, at present, at least in districts in which farms of the smaller sizes still abound, there are many instances of servants, of the lowest order, rising to affluence, merely by the help of their own industry, frugality, and a natural spirit of emulation,—cherished and led on, by the gradation of farms.’

If Mr. Marshall’s remark be just, farms ought not to be allowed by landlords to exceed a certain magnitude:

‘ Seeing the weight of care and forethought which every sufficient husbandman has to sustain, we may venture, I think, to conclude that there are few men who have attention and activity enough to manage, *politically*, more than five hundred acres of land, in a state of mixed cultivation, and worth, according to the present rental value of lands, five hundred pounds, a year; even though they lie compactly round one central farmery.’

The advice for the improvement of the atmosphere on bleakly exposed lands, by screen plantations and tall fences, is excellent: but the opinion which is given to enforce it, that ‘ living trees communicate a degree of actual warmth to the air which envelopes them, and that there is a warmth proceeding from vegetable life,’ we do not regard as correct. The effect of screen plantations in ameliorating the atmosphere appears to us to result from their breaking the current of air, and from the retention of the warm air occasioned by the reflection of the sun on the region in which it is generated.

A long section is occupied on the art of planning, forming, and repairing roads; which we must pass over, though we cannot help adverting to one remark on the stupidity of surveyors: who, in laying out public roads, seem to forget that frequently the line is not lengthened by carrying the traveller round a hill instead of forcing him over it; and that, by winding the road in a gentle curve, the eye is pleased, while it never can be gratified by the monotonous effect of one continued straight line.

While Mr. M. reckons the improvement of Markets among the means of benefiting neighbouring estates, he enters his protest against Manufactories, being fearful of their baneful effects on Agriculture :

‘ A populous manufactory, even while it flourishes, operates mischievously, in an agricultural district : - by propagating habits of extravagance and immorality among the lower order of tenantry ; as well as by rendering farm laborers and servants dissatisfied with their condition in life. And the more it flourishes, and the higher wages it pays, the more mischievous it becomes in this respect. Moreover, as has been observed, lands bear a rental value in proportion to the rate of living, in the district in which they lie ; so that while a temporary advantage is reaped by an increased price of market produce, the foundation of a permanent disadvantage is laid. And whenever the manufactory declines, the lands of its neighbourhood have not only its vices and extravagance entailed upon them, but, as has been shown, have the vicious, extravagant, helpless manufacturers themselves, to maintain.

‘ This accumulation of evils, however, belongs particularly to *manufactories* (emphatically so called) — to that description of manufacture, which draws numbers together in one place ;—where diseases of the body and the mind are jointly propagated ; and where no other means of support is taught than that of some particular branch, or branchlet, of manufacture.

‘ It would be well for the next generation, if the political florists of the present would confine their forcing houses to great towns, or their immediate environs ; and not defile with their pestilential effluvia, as they have lately done, the purer air of the country ; where robustness of constitution has heretofore been reared ; and where industry, frugality, and simplicity of manners, were wont to dwell.’—

‘ There are manufactures, it is true, which are necessary to the *present inordinate state* of commerce, yet which cannot be jointly carried on with agriculture. But let it be the endeavour of that class of the community who have a radical interest in the lasting welfare of the British nation, to confine the manufactories of exotic materials to commercial places : in order that when the bubbles of an over fermented commerce burst, their subsiding feculencies may mingle with its other dregs, and pass away with the least possible injury to the future condition of the country.’

At the end of the second division of this treatise, some practical remarks are to be found on Executing the Improvements of Farm Lands ; in which this agricultural Lecturer advises large proprietors, instead of attempting to rival the meanest of their tenants in farming for their own pecuniary profit, (which they rarely if ever obtain,) to direct their views in agriculture professedly and effectually towards the pecuniary advantages of their tenants ; and, instead of boasting of the price of a bullock or the produce of a field, to place their pride in the flourishing condition

dition of their estates at large, and in the value of the improvements which they have been the happy means of diffusing among their tenantry. The force of this liberal and judicious council will be felt and duly appreciated by every real gentleman. Mr. Marshall is no friend to Water Mills: but he is still less partial to Mining, and makes every effort to put Land Owners on their guard against this species of gambling.

The third and last grand division, respecting the *Management* of Landed Estates, treats of the Executive Establishment,—of the General Principles of Business,—of letting Farms,—of the choice and proper treatment of Tenants,—of receiving rents,—and of keeping and auditing accounts. It will not be expected of us to recite the several minutiae which these sections include: but Mr. M.'s observations on the proper treatment of tenants are so well founded on the basis of morality and sound policy, that we shall finish our extracts with them:

‘ It is not in matters of good faith, alone, that a superintendant ought to set an example to the tenants under his care. He should endeavour to liberalize their minds, by good offices and acts of kindness. There are numberless small favors which he can bestow upon them, without loss, and many with eventual advantage, to the estate. A spirited improving tenant should be refused nothing that he can reasonably ask,—should have favors voluntarily conferred upon him: not merely as a reward for the services which he, individually, is rendering the estate: but to induce its other tenants to follow his example; and to make known to the whole, that their conduct is observed, and distinctions made between good and bad managers.

‘ But here, again, we must stop, to view the reverse of this principle of treatment. In every part of the kingdom, we see the superintendants of estates obstinately refusing the most reasonable requests, by which not the tenant only, but the estate, would be materially benefited; stupidly thwarting the good intentions of the best tenants upon it; ignorantly quarrelling with them about the merest trifles: making no distinctions between those who are improving the estate, and those who are running it to ruin: or, perhaps, encouraging the latter, and oppressing the former.

‘ The consequences need not be traced. Tenants who are able to improve are also able to impoverish; and, when disgusted by improper treatment, will ransack their lands, and take the first opportunity of moving to an estate under more rational management. Thus every part of an ill managed estate tends toward ruin.\* And, in the course of time, none but slovens, and adventurers who want a temporary residence, are to be found upon it.

‘ Estates, like men, have their good or bad characters. No skillful farmer, who has a capital to lose, will take up his residence on an estate of known bad character. On the contrary, when once an estate has acquired the character of good faith, and proper treatment of its tenantry, men of money and spirit will ever be anxious there to gain a footing.

‘ Beside.

\* Beside, the character of an estate will ever involve that of its possessor. And, setting income at nought, it surely behoves a man of property to pay some attention to the character of his estates. For what can well add more to the permanent respectability of a family of rank and fortune, than having its estates occupied by a wealthy and respectable tenantry?

‘ In a state of civilized society and property, one of the great arts of life is to teach character and interest to go hand in hand; and on ordinary occasions, to endeavour to turn every incident, as it fortuitously occurs, to their mutual advantage. If a tenant of capital and an improving spirit be found upon an estate, give him due encouragement, for the purposes already explained. On the contrary, if another is found to possess refractory habits, to swerve from his engagements, or to injure the lands in his occupation, it is but common prudence to take the first legal and fair opportunity of dismissing him, —and of supplying his place with another, who is better qualified to fill it: not more with a view of rescuing his particular farm from further injury, and of making an example of him, in terror to others of similar habits,—than to preserve and heighten the character of the estate.’

In the Appendices, observations are made on Harvesting Woodland Produce, and on the Management of Demesne Land; and the whole concludes with a repetition of proposals for a Rural Institute, a scheme which Mr. M. is known to be very solicitous of carrying into effect, but which the public appears not desirous of adopting.

This production may be considered as a general arrangement and summing-up of the author's remarks and observations in his former publications; to which references are made at the end of each section.

The quarto volume, to which we have hitherto directed our attention, being intended ‘ to convey to *Men of Fortune*, every requisite information relative, not only to the business which belongs to Landed Property, but to the general concerns of Proprietors;’ Mr. Marshall has been induced, in the abstract in octavo, to consult the convenience of *professed Men of business*, and presents them with ‘ an *Office Book*, in which the various subjects of Estate Agency may be studied, and referred to, as occasions shall require.’ In this lesser work, the young student of rural affairs is exhorted not to shrink from any part of the task which is here prescribed, but to consider that superior excellence in his department depends on rigid method and an attention to *minutiae*. Mr. M. observes that he does not so much fear that he has been too minute, as that he may possibly have omitted some Essentials of Practice.

At the conclusion of this summary, Mr. Marshall has addressed, like a rural bishop, a solemn *Charge to a Farm Manager*;



which we should gladly quote, were it not too long for insertion. If the managers of farms would attend to these rules, they could not fail of being respected, and of giving satisfaction to their employers.

ART. VI. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London, for the Year 1805. Part II. 4to. 10s. 6d. sewed. Nicol.*

ASTRONOMY, PHILOSOPHY, &c.

ON the Direction and Velocity of the Motion of the Sun, and Solar System. By William Herschell, LL.D. F.R.S.—It has been laid down as a rule in philosophy, to admit the fewest possible causes; and of the several modes of the explanation of phænomena, to adopt that which is the simplest. The maxim, when properly exemplified into meaning, is a good one; and philosophers, in their discoveries, have been guided and actuated by its spirit. Of the proper motions of stars, no satisfactory explanation has yet, we believe, appeared; they may be either *real* or *apparent*. If the supposition of the motion of the solar system could account for these proper motions,—that is, if these proper motions could be shewn to be merely parallaxic,—would not this supposition be more simple, more natural, and more deserving of philosophic reception, than the hypothesis which attributes real motions to the stars? We think that it would; and we should esteem Dr. Herschell as having rendered essential service to science, if, by assigning a direction and a velocity to the solar motion, he afforded an easy explanation of the phænomena of the proper motions of the fixed stars.

If, however, we follow the guide of mere Analogy, we ought, when we attribute motion to the solar system, to attribute motion also to fixed stars; on the grounds of that magnificent hypothesis, according to the spirit of which the sun is a fixed star, and fixed stars are so many suns: but, if proper motion be attributed to the fixed stars and to the sun, Dr. H.'s undertaking, if not hopeless, must be of immense labour. The design which we mean is that of ascertaining a point in the heavens, toward which the solar motion is directed; and we cannot think that the present paper has in any degree settled that investigation. The author determines three or four points; and if the solar motion be directed to the latter, the proper motions of certain fixed stars will be much less than they would be if the solar motion were directed to any other point. This argument proceeds on the hypothesis that the solar velocity is of a certain quantity, and that the apparent motions

motions of the fixed stars are compounded of *real* and of *parallactic* motions. Is any thing satisfactory made out by this doctrine? We understand, on the *ground of simplicity*, why it is desirable to resolve all proper motions into such as are parallactic, the stars being quiescent and the sun in motion: but, if we once admit a real motion to the stars, we do not see why it is desirable to render their proper motions as small as possible: we do not therefore perceive why we ought to 'give the preference to that direction of the motion of the sun which will take away more real motion than any other.'—It may be necessary to state Dr. H.'s method of determining the Apex, towards which the solar motion is directed:

'To return to the before mentioned intersections of the arches, in which the proper motions of the stars are performed, I shall begin by proving that when the proper motions of two stars are given, an apex may be found, to which, if the sun be supposed to move with a certain velocity, the two given motions may then be resolved into apparent changes, arising from sidereal parallax, the stars remaining perfectly at rest.

'Let the stars be Arcturus and Sirius, and their annual proper motions as given in the Astronomer Royal's Tables.

'When the annual proper motion of Arcturus, which is  $-1^{\circ}.26'$  in right ascension, and  $+1^{\circ}.72'$  in north polar distance, is reduced by a composition of motions to a single one, it will be in a direction which makes an angle of  $55^{\circ} 29' 42''$  south-preceding with the parallel of Arcturus, and of a velocity so as to describe annually  $2^{\circ}.08718$  of a great circle.

'The annual proper motion of Sirius,  $-0^{\circ}.42'$  in right ascension, and  $+1^{\circ}.04'$  in north polar distance, by the same method of composition, becomes a motion of  $1^{\circ}.11528$ , in a direction which makes an angle of  $68^{\circ} 49' 41''$  south preceding with the parallel of Sirius.

'By calculation, the arches in which these two stars move, when continued, will meet in what I have called their parallactic center, whose right ascension is  $75^{\circ} 39' 50''$ , and south polar distance is  $36^{\circ} 41' 34''$ . The opposite of this, or right ascension,  $255^{\circ} 39' 50''$ , and north polar distance  $36^{\circ} 41' 34''$ , is what we are to assume for the required apex of the solar motion.

'When a star is situated at a certain distance from the sun, which we shall call  $r$ ; and  $90^{\circ}$  from the apex of the solar motion, its parallactic motion will be a maximum. Let us now suppose the velocity of the sun to be such that its motion, to a person situated on this star, would appear to describe annually an arch of  $2^{\circ}.84825$ , or, which is the same thing, that the star would appear to us, from the effect of parallax, to move over the above mentioned arch in the same time.

'To apply this to Arcturus, we find by calculation that its distance from the apex of the solar motion is  $47^{\circ} 7' 6''$ ; its parallactic motion therefore, which is as the sine of that distance, will be  $2^{\circ}.08718$ ; and this, as has been shown, is the apparent motion which observation has established as the proper motion of Arcturus.

'In

‘ In the next place, if we admit Sirius to be a very large star situated at the distance 1,6809 from us, and compute its elongation from the apex of the solar motion, we shall find it  $138^{\circ} 50' 14''.5$ . With these two data we calculate that its parallax motion will be  $\frac{\phi \cdot S}{r \cdot d} = p = 1'',11528$ ; and this also agrees with the apparent motion which has been ascertained by observation as the proper motion of Sirius.’

On this passage, we must remark that the assumptions of a certain quantity for the sun’s motion, and of fixed stars being situated from the sun at distances *having a determinate ratio* to each other, are very strange, and (especially the latter) unwarrantable. Are not such assumptions new in Astronomy? But, admitting this apex to be determined; if, as Dr. H. afterward supposes, we take a third star, two new apices must be formed: if we take more and more stars, the apices will continue to increase; and if a few stars be taken, a point may perhaps be approximated, at which the motions will become more parallaxic than at any other: but this point may not necessarily be that towards which the solar motion is directed, since its determination was effected for this object, that the proper motions should be as small as possible, and since its determination depends on only a few stars.

The perusal of this paper has not afforded us much mental satisfaction: it enters largely into hypothesis and conjecture, and arrives at no conclusion: where, then, is the reward for forcing our way along the intricate paths of abstruse investigation?

*Observations on the singular Figure of the Planet Saturn. By the Same.*—At the commencement of this memoir, Dr. H. remarks that

‘ There is not perhaps another object in the heavens that presents us with such a variety of extraordinary phenomena as the planet Saturn: a magnificent globe, encompassed by a stupendous double ring: attended by seven satellites; ornamented with equatorial belts: compressed at the poles: turning upon its axis: mutually eclipsing its ring and satellites, and eclipsed by them: the most distant of the rings also turning upon its axis, and the same taking place with the farthest of the satellites: all the parts of the system of Saturn occasionally reflecting light to each other: the rings and moons illuminating the nights of the Saturnian: the globe and satellites enlightening the dark parts of the rings: and the planet and rings throwing back the sun’s beams upon the moons, when they are deprived of them at the time of their conjunctions.’

Many curious characteristic circumstances are here enumerated: but, giving faith to the present paper, the catalogue

is not complete. There is a peculiarity in the figure of Saturn which distinguishes it from all other planets.

The arguments have been an hundred times stated, by which Newton was induced to infer the spheroidal figure of the earth. From the velocity of rotation, the parts of the globe must have a tendency to recede from the axis of rotation; and those parts must have the greatest tendency which have the greatest velocity, since in equal distances the attraction towards the centre is the same. Hence the parts situated in the equator must bulge out, or be more protuberant than other parts any where situated between the poles and equator.

The degree of oblateness must no doubt depend, in some sort, on the tenacity, cohesion, &c. of the particles of the revolving spheroid: but, *ceteris paribus*, the oblateness will be the greater, the less is the period of rotation. The diurnal rotation is very small, and hence a protuberance of matter at the equator is supposed. This inference, we believe, has been made by the first of modern physical Astronomers, M. Laplace: yet it must lose part of its truth and justness, if the result of Dr. Herschell's observations be admitted.

As early as the year 1776, Dr. H. discovered that the body of Saturn was not exactly round; and that the polar diameter was less than the equatorial: but the peculiarity in its figure was not ascertained by him till 1805. That peculiarity consists in this, that the greatest curvature is at latitude  $44^{\circ}$ , and that the greatest diameter belongs to this point.

Dr. H.'s observations are noted according to his custom in a journal style: he appears not to have depended on the accuracy of one telescope only, but to have used many; and he examined Jupiter on the same night in which he viewed the peculiarity in Saturn's figure. He gives three diameters of Saturn in proportional numbers: the polar, equatorial, and the diameter belonging to latitude  $43^{\circ} 20'$ , which are 32, 35, 36. A plate also is added, representing Saturn's figure; which we compared with another figure given by the same indefatigable astronomer in the Transactions for 1792; and we could not, on the comparison, forbear exclaiming, "*Multum abludit Imago!*" It seems rather strange to us that, if this last representation be correct, Saturn's peculiarity of shape should not have been before remarked: it seems also extraordinary that this peculiarity should not be discernible in telescopes of moderate excellence: yet to what observer in Great Britain, excepting to Dr. H., does not Saturn appear round?

At the conclusion of his paper, Dr. Herschell says: 'The foregoing observations of the figure of the body of Saturn will lead to some intricate researches, by which the quantity of matter in the  
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the ring, and its solidity, may be in some measure ascertained. They also afford a new instance of the effect of gravitation on the figure of planets; for in the case of Saturn, we shall have to consider the opposite influence of two centripetal and two centrifugal forces: the rotation of both the ring and planet having been ascertained in some of my former Papers.'

A sentence in this passage sounds to us like a dark and doubtful oracle: '*a new instance of the Effect of Gravitation on the Figure of Planets.*' Does the author mean to insinuate that the observed peculiarity in Saturn's form is an obvious consequence from the attraction of the ring? We certainly are unable to discern why the attraction of the ring, combined with the rotatory motion, causes the greatest curvature to be at a latitude of  $43^{\circ}$ . Distrusting our own discernment, we have searched for light in the *Mécanique céleste* of Laplace, but without success. We hope that this great Mathematician will soon turn his attention to this subject, and reduce under the laws of Newton's system this curious phenomenon and seeming anomaly.

*Concerning the Difference in the Magnetic Needle, on board the Investigator, arising from an Alteration in the Direction of the Ship's Head.* By Matthew Flinders, Esq., Commander of his Majesty's Ship Investigator.—We believe that the variation mentioned in this memoir has never before been noticed. As it is certainly curious, and must occasion (we think) much perplexity in practice, we deem it proper to state the fact in the author's own words:

'Whilst surveying along the south coast of New Holland, in 1801 and 1802, I observed a considerable difference in the direction of the magnetic needle, when there was no other apparent cause for it than that of the ship's head being in a different direction. This occasioned much perplexity in laying down the bearings, and in allowing a proper variation upon them, and put me under the necessity of endeavouring to find out some method of correcting or allowing for these differences; for unless this could be done, many errors must unavoidably get admission into the chart. I first removed two guns into the hold, which had stood near the compasses, and afterwards fixed the surveying compass exactly a-midships upon the binnacle, for at first it was occasionally shifted to the weather side as the ship went about; but neither of these two arrangements produced any material effect in remedying the disagreements.'

When the ship's head was either north or south, no variation or difference was observed: when it was turned to the west, the difference was easterly, and *vice versâ*. Captain Flinders offers some theoretical explanation, but it is not very convincing; the fact, however, deserves the attention of navigators.

*Abstract*

*Abstract of Observations on a diurnal Variation of the Barometer between the Tropics.* By J. Horsburgh, Esq.—This paper gives an account of a singular affection of the barometer, which occurs in the tropical regions, and which will be best understood from the author's own words:

‘It was found that in settled weather in the Indian seas, from 8 AM to noon, the mercury in the barometer was generally stationary, and at the point of greatest elevation; after noon it began to fall, and continued falling till 4 afternoon, at which time it arrived at the lowest point of depression. From 4 or 5 PM the mercury rose again, and continued rising till about 10 or 11 PM, at which time it had again acquired its greatest point of elevation, and continued stationary nearly till midnight; after which it began to fall, till at 12 AM it was again as low as it had been at 4 afternoon preceding; but from this time it rose till 7 or 8 o'clock, when it reached the highest point of elevation, and continued stationary till noon.’

This motion, which Mr. H. calls equatropical, had been observed by other gentlemen resident in the East Indies: but Mr. Horsburgh was the first who discovered that the occurrence took place only at sea. He had an opportunity of verifying this fact in several instances; and he uniformly found the diurnal variations to become altogether or nearly imperceptible while on shore, but they were immediately resumed on quitting the land. The motion was occasionally interrupted by changes of weather, but, for the most part, proceeded with great regularity. Mr. H. does not attempt to assign any cause for the phænomenon.

#### MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, NATURAL HISTORY, &c.

*The Physiology of the Stapes, one of the Bones of the Organ of Hearing, deduced from a comparative View of its Structure and Uses in different Animals.* By Anthony Carlisle, Esq. F.R.S.—The science of optics has been materially advanced by attending to the minute anatomy of the eye; and in like manner, it is not unreasonable to expect that similar investigations pursued with respect to the ear may illustrate the doctrine of acoustics, and increase our knowledge of the respective uses of the parts of that complicated organ. With this view, Mr. Carlisle has devoted himself to an examination of the stapes, one of those minute bodies which compose the chain of ossicles, situated in the internal part of the ear. He begins with a minute description of its external figure, its shape and size, its position relatively to the neighbouring parts, and the manner in which it is connected with them. The muscle of the stapes and its mode of action are afterward described; and it is remarked ‘that all the muscles of the ossicula auditus act nearly

at right angles, or in straight lines, contrary to the ordinary course of muscular application, by which their forces are comparatively augmented.' Mr. Carlisle offers some interesting observations on the comparative anatomy of the part. Fish have nothing corresponding with the ossicles as they exist in man; birds and the amphibia have one bone only, which is called the columella, reaching from the tympanum to the *fenestra vestibuli*. Mr. C. has discovered a remarkable peculiarity in the structure of these organs in the guinea pig and the marmot; and he has observed that the two species of *ornithorhynchi* are furnished with *columella*, thus forming 'an additional point of similarity between these strange quadrupeds and birds.'

From considering the structure of the stapes, and the corresponding parts in other animals, it seems probable that its principal use is to tighten the different parts of the ear, so as to fit them for receiving the impressions of sound; which it does by pressing on the fluid contained in the labyrinth, so as to distend the membrane closing the *fenestra cochleæ*. The author conceives that the effect produced by the ossicles is merely that of giving a greater or less degree of tension to the parts of the ear, and that there is no specific action for different kinds of sounds. The muscles are all involuntary, and are affected only by the peculiar stimulus of sound.

Mr. C. found by experiment that, when the *meatus externus* was half filled with warm water, a sound was still produced by continuing to drop the fluid into the ear; whence he concludes that the impression must have been conveyed to the *fenestra cochleæ*, immediately across the cavity of the tympanum, without going along the small bones, since the vibrations of the tympanum must have been destroyed by the pressure of the water. This inference is, we apprehend, scarcely admissible, since several circumstances would lead us to suppose that water conveys the vibrations of sound at least as completely as air.—The paper is accompanied by accurate figures of the *stapides* and *columella* of several different animals.

*On an artificial Substance which possesses the principal characteristic Properties of Tannin.* By Charles Hatchett, Esq., F.R.S.—Mr. Hatchett was led to the curious discovery which forms the principal subject of this paper, by observing the effect of the nitric acid on bitumens; when he found that two separate products were obtained, a dark brown solution, and a yellow mass, similar to the substance formed by the action of the acid on resinous bodies. He imagined that the brown solution contained the carbonaceous part of the bitumen, and this idea in-  
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duced him to observe the operation of the nitric acid, first on pit coal, and afterward on charcoal. He formed solutions of these substances; and, by gradual evaporation, residues were left, which, both in their external appearance and in their chemical characters, closely resembled tannin. Among other properties, they possessed the astringent flavor, they precipitated jelly from its solution in water, and the precipitates were found to be insoluble.—Mr. Hatchett afterward discovered that the same substance could be procured by the action of the nitric acid on animal coal, although the effect was more slowly accomplished. The formation of this artificial tannin evidently depended on the action of the acid on the charcoal; and the more pure this substance was, the more readily was the tannin produced.

Mr. H. next enters on some speculations concerning the manner in which charcoal is *naturally* formed. He has attempted to imitate the process by the employment of the sulphuric acid; and although his experiments are still incomplete, they have, to a certain extent, been successful. If sulphuric acid be permitted to act on turpentine for a sufficient length of time, it is converted into a black, coaly substance; and the longer the action continues, the more completely is this conversion effected. The operation is supposed to depend on a portion of the hydrogen and carbon of the turpentine abstracting oxygen from the acid, and converting it into the sulphurous acid. The coaly matter thus formed, when treated with nitric acid, produced tannin in the same way in which pit coal had been found to create it.—The facts mentioned in this paper are new and interesting; and they are related with that correct simplicity which characterizes the writings of this ingenious chemist. (See a supplementary Paper, p. 389.)

*The Case of a full grown Woman, in whom the Ovaria were deficient.* By Mr. Charles Pears.—The case here related had other peculiarities besides the defect in the ovaria. The female in question had considerable debility in the stomach, and torpor of the alimentary canal; she ceased to grow when 10 years old, and her stature never exceeded  $4\frac{1}{2}$  feet; and she never exhibited any marks of puberty. She was subject to complaints of the chest, and one of these attacks carried her off in her 20th year. On examination after death, the uterus was found without disease, but of extremely small bulk; and 'the ovaria were so indistinct, as rather to shew the rudiments which ought to have formed them, than any part of their natural structure.' To this imperfect state of the ovaria, the author ascribes the defective growth of the uterus, and probably with some justice;



rice : but it must be remarked that the whole system manifested a degree of inaction which could scarcely be attributed to this cause.

*A Description of Malformation in the Heart of an Infant.* By Mr. Hugh Chüdleigh Standent.—This paper contains an instance of a mal-conformation of the heart, which prevented the blood from being acted on by the air, and gave the skin a blue or purple colour. The subject lived only a few days : but, during that period, the respiration, temperature, and muscular action are said not to have been affected ; the cause of its death is not stated. All the viscera were found to be in a natural condition, except the heart ; which organ presented very unusual appearances, since it had only one auricle and one ventricle, the pulmonary artery was wanting, and its place was supplied by a branch sent off from the aorta. It appears, therefore, that the organization of this heart was nearly similar to that of the amphibia.

*On a Method of analyzing Stones containing fixed Alkali, by means of the Boracic Acid.* By Humphrey Davy, Esq., F.R.S.—We are here informed that Mr. Davy has found the boracic acid an useful agent in the analysis of those minerals which contain a quantity of fixed alkali. At the heat of ignition, the acid possesses such an affinity for the different earths, as to bring them into a state of solution ; while the compounds which it forms are easily decomposed by the mineral acids.

*On the Reproduction of Buds.* By Thomas Andrew Knight, Esq., F.R.S.—If the buds of a plant be destroyed during the early part of the spring, they will generally be reproduced ; and Mr. Knight here proposes to inquire whence these new buds are derived. Some physiologists have supposed that they originate from the bark, and others from the medulla of the plant : but he attempts to controvert both these positions. With respect to the first, he observed that buds were formed from the inner part of the hollow stem of the *crambe maritima*, and also from the substance of the lobe of the potatoe. In order to prove that the buds do not arise from the medulla, Mr. Knight removed the radical leaves from some seedling plants ; and, exposing a part of the stem to the air, he remarked, after some time, that a number of buds proceeded from it : he also found the same event to take place from the roots and trunks of older trees ; in neither of which instances did it appear that the buds could have any connection with the medulla. We confess, however, that the arguments against the medulla being the source of the buds, though plausible, do not appear so decisive

cisive as those which respect the bark. Mr. Knight's own idea on the subject is, that the reproduced buds spring from the lateral orifices of the alburnous tubes; a supposition which we certainly consider as the most probable of any that have been offered on the subject.

*Some Account of two Mummies of the Egyptian Ibis, one of which was in a remarkably perfect State.* By John Pearson, Esq., F.R.S.—The ibis is known to have been one of those animals which the Egyptians were in the habit of converting into mummies. Several of these preparations have been brought into Europe, and examined, but they are generally found in an imperfect and decayed state. Mr. Pearson, however, obtained possession of one which was remarkably entire, and which was procured from the catacombs of Thebes, and must probably have lain there for upwards of 3000 years. The bird was completely encrusted with a bituminous matter, and was swathed in linen, saturated with the same substance. On removing these coverings, the animal was found very perfect, even the feathers not being much altered from their natural appearance; a circumstance which proves that they had never been exposed to any great degree of heat in the process of embalming.

*On the magnetic Attraction of Oxides of Iron.* By Timothy Lane, Esq., F.R.S.—In our review of the last volume of the Phil. Trans., we gave an account of Mr. Hatchett's valuable experiments on the magnetical properties of the sulphuret of iron; and Mr. Lane, who had before turned his attention to the subject, was induced by them to inquire how far the pure oxids of iron had any magnetical power. The result was that they did not exhibit any such indication, when perfectly free from inflammable matter: but, on being united to it, even in a very small quantity, they became magnetical. The quantity of inflammable matter that produced this change was very minute. When the oxid was placed in the focus of a burning lens, it was rendered magnetical merely by being united to the small quantity of dust that was floating in the atmosphere; and it was found that a single grain of camphor dissolved in alcohol, when heated with 100 grains of the oxid, rendered all the particles magnetic. As far as we learn from this paper, every inflammable substance is capable of imparting this property to the oxids of iron.

*Additional Experiments on an artificial Substance, which possesses the principal characteristic Properties of Tannin.* By C. Hatchett, Esq. (see p. 386).—Mr. Hatchett here gives a farther

account of his interesting experiments on the artificial tannin. Contrary to what takes place with natural tannin, he found that it was not affected in its properties by the action of nitric acid; whereas this fluid, when added to galls, sumach, and other bodies of that kind, entirely destroys their tanning property. When the artificial tan was exposed to a strong heat in close vessels, it appeared to be resolved into the ammoniacal and the carbonic acid gases.—Hitherto, Mr. Hatchett had only procured this substance by digesting charcoal in some form in nitric acid: but he afterward found that it might be obtained from Indigo, Lac, Benzoin, and several others, by distilling the acid from them; and that a substance very similar to the artificial tan might be formed by digesting common resin, camphor, and some other similar bodies in sulphuric acid. With respect to the composition of this product, it appears that carbon is the principal ingredient, but that it also contains oxygen, hydrogen, and azot. In its formation, probably, water is decomposed, as well as nitric acid; from the former is derived the hydrogen, and from the latter the two other constituent parts.—This paper, and its predecessor on the same subject, we consider as by far the most valuable in the present volume.

*On the Discovery of Palladium; with Observations on other Substances found with Platina.* By Wm. Hyde Wollaston. M.D. Sec. R.S.—Crude platina has of late afforded a copious field for chemical discoveries. Several metals have been found in it, the existence of which is universally admitted; and we think that the paper before us goes far in substantiating the claims of palladium to be considered as a distinct metallic substance. Dr. Wollaston has also detected a number of very minute bodies, which, from their figure and mechanical properties, he supposes to be of the nature of hyacinths. With respect to palladium, he gives an account of the process by which he originally obtained it, and states at some length his reasons for considering it as a simple metal. He finds that it forms a triple salt, which is crystallizable with muriatic acid and potash; a circumstance which he regards as decisive in favour of his opinion, since he knows of 'no instance in chemistry of a distinct crystallized salt, containing more than two bases combined with one acid.' He farther observes that, after having subjected palladium to the action of different menstua, combined it with different metals, and precipitated it by various re-agents, he always obtained a substance possessing the same properties.—We confess that his reasoning appears to us extremely plausible, if not absolutely convincing; and we should probably have no remaining hesitation on the subject, could we divest our minds of the

the impression produced by the singular manner in which the metal was first announced to the world.

Dr. Wollaston has found that the prussiat of mercury completely precipitates palladium from the solution of crude platina; and he has also noticed the singular fact that no nitrous gas is disengaged when the metal is dissolved in nitric acid: a fact which we could scarcely credit, if it rested on less respectable authority.—The paper concludes with some experiments on the powers of palladium in conducting heat, and on the degrees of its expansibility at different temperatures.

*Experiments on a Mineral Substance formerly supposed to be Zeolite; with some Remarks on two Species of Uran-glimmer.* By the Rev. William Gregor.—In reviewing the former part of this volume, we noticed an analysis by Mr. Davy of a mineral from Barnstaple, which had been supposed to be a zeolite. It was found, however, to possess very different properties from that body; consisting principally of alumina, united to a fluid which was supposed to be water. In the present paper, Mr. Gregor (well known for his talents as an analyzer,) has undertaken the examination of what appears to be nearly a similar substance, obtained from a mine in Cornwall. He begins by an account of its physical characters, and the effects of different re-agents on it. It does not possess the peculiar property, from which the zeolite derives its name, of frothing when exposed to heat, but by this process it loses from 25 to 30 per cent. of its weight.—The analysis seems to have been conducted with considerable accuracy; and the result is that 100 parts of the mineral contain alumina 58, silica 6, a minute quantity of lime, and volatile matter 30 parts. Mr. Gregor supposes the silica and lime to be essential ingredients, since he always found them, even in the purest specimens of the mineral.—He afterward made some experiments on the volatile matter, but without being able accurately to determine its nature; it appears to be water slightly acidulated. The account given in this paper, on the whole, coincides with the analysis of Mr. Davy; who, however, imagined the alumina to exist in a greater proportion, and considered the silica and lime as only accidental impurities.

An Index to the volume, Lists, &c. are inserted, as usual.

ART. VII. *The History and Antiquities of the County of Leicester.* By John Nichols. F.S.A. Edinburgh and Perth. Vol. III. Part 2. Containing West Goscote Hundred. Folio. pp. 745, with 85 folio Plates. 2l. 12s. 6d. small Paper; 3l. 13s. 6d. large Paper, Boards. Nichols, &c.

THE Hundred of East Goscote was the subject of the first part of this volume, which we noticed in M. R. Vol. xl. N.S., p. 68. We are now required to attend this indefatigable antiquary in his researches throughout the different parishes and subdivisions of the Hundred of *West Goscote*, in which his diligence and minuteness are as conspicuous as on any former occasion. To the common reader, the mass of these ponderous volumes must be uninteresting; yet here and there, like Oases in the African deserts, some attractive spots are to be discovered, on which the eye can repose with pleasure, and which recompense for the general dreariness of the journey. When it is considered of what materials the bulk of these mountains of literature is composed, they must be regarded as calculated rather for occasional consultation than for regular perusal. Monumental Inscriptions, family Pedigrees, Patents, Statutes, Deeds, Wills, parish Registers and Chartularies, Charters and confirmation Grants, Valuations, Disbursements, Lists, and other matter equally dry, occupy the major part of the volume: but some of these extracts are curious in so far as they illustrate the history of our country, and many of the biographical notices are amusing. As Mr. Nichols proceeds from parish to parish, he furnishes a short account of each, and describes the antient and present state of property. From contents so multifarious, it is not easy to satisfy ourselves in making selections: but we must not so entirely neglect the gratification of our readers as to dismiss such a work without some specimens of Mr. Nichols's industry, in reviving our acquaintance with things which oblivion had almost numbered as her own.

In the account of Ashby de la Zouch, which belonged to the great Lord Hastings, the history of the family of Hastings is given, with a copy of the Will of Katharine his wife, daughter of Richard Nevill, Earl of Shrewsbury, who died in the 19th year of the reign of Henry VII.; which exhibits a picture of attention in the nobility of those times to domestic minutæ, that may surprize the fine ladies of the present day. We shall transcribe a part of it:

‘ Item, I bequeath to myne especial good lord George earl of Shrewsbury a cope of cloth of gold of white damasce, with torpens cloth of gold and velvet upon velvet. Item, a vestment of purple velvet, with a crucifix and images of St. Peter and St. John embroidered

broidered upon that oon of them. Item, I bequeath to my lady of Shrewsbury a cope of cloth of gold with lillyes embroidered, and that oon with the image of the Trinitie, with a frontail for an altar. Item, my Prymar, which is now in the keeping of my lady Fits Hugh; also two cushions of counterfeit arres with imagery of women; a long quishion, and two short, of blew velvet. Item, a long covering for a quishion of purple velvet, and oon short; also two carpets. Item, I bequeath to my son Edward lord Hastings a suite of vestiments, now being in the hands of the abbot of Darley for a sune of twenty pounds, which suite I will be pledged oute of my proper goods; also an owche, being in the keeping of my son William; also an image of our Lady, now being in the hands of my lady marquesse. Item, a salt of gold, being now in the hands of my daughter Mary lady Hungerford; alsoe a fair Prymar, which I had by the yesture of queen Elizabeth. Alsoe where my seyd son oweth unto me for certain charges which I took upon me for his sake an hundred markes, as appeareth by his writing thereof made, I, considering the kinde demeanor of my said son at this time in granting of a certain annuity, remit and pardon unto him the said hundred markes due to me by the bequest of William Strote, in part of payment for my debts, and for my servants at the next audit. Alsoe, I bequeath unto my said son two coverings for quishions of counterfeit arres, with imagery of women. Item two quishions of counterfeit arres with my lord's armes; alsoe two paire of curtaines of green tartarin. Item, two short quishions of tawney velvet; alsoe a long quishion, and short, of crimson velvet; alsoe such pieces of bawdekyn, with a frontaile of cloth of gold of blew sattin, as hath been accustomed to be occupied about the sepulchre of our Lord; alsoe a cloth of bawdekyn, with a frontaile of red bawdekyn for the font. Item, an old hanging of counterfeit arres of Knollys, which now hangeth in the hall; and all such hangings of old bawdekyn or lymen paynted as now hang in the chappell, with the altar-clothes and oon super altare, with oon of the vestiments that now be occupied in the chappell. Alsoe all such pieces of hangings as I have, of blew and better blew, with my lord's armes, with banquys and cupboard-clothes of the same sort. Alsoe three barrehydies for carriage; and two barrehydies for clothe sekks. Also the third part of my hey that is at Kerby, and all such tymber as I have there. Also all the bedding that he hath of mine which late was at London, reserved only two fedurbedds and a cowercher that I wol Richard my son have, and also two carpets. Item, I bequeath to my sons Richard and William four coverings for quishions with my lord's armys of counterfeit arres. Also two hangings for an altiar, with the twelve Apostles embroidered with gold, with a crucifix and the Salutation of our Lady. Alsoe all the pieces of hangings of verd that now hang in my chamber and in the parlour; alsoe all my stuffe of napree pertaining to the pantree; alsoe two pair of blankets, and two pair of fustians; also four pair of fine sheets, alsoe my stuffe of kitchen, as platters, dishes, sawcers, broaches, potts, and pans; alsoe all my hey that is in Lubbeshorp, provided that William have the more part of the hey; alsoe two parts of the hey at Kerby; alsoe two vestiments, oon that hath been accustomed to be occupied

cupied in my high house, and on that's occupied in the chappell; two Messe-books, two super altars, oon of white to Richard, and oon of jett to William; two corporauxes; alsoe to Richard foure pair of brigaunter; and to William two payre; and to them both thirteen saletts. Item, to my son William all such stuffe of bedding as he hath now in his chamber of mine; that is to say, a feller, tester, and counterpoint of roosemary, a quilt happing, a white mantell, a white square happing; a square happing white and black. Alsoe to my son William all such plate as was in the hands of John Holme, with that he pay unto the said John, at the feast of St. Andrew next coming, fifteen pounds, in part of payment of a greater sume; and over that to doe such charitable deedes of almes as I have appointed to be done by him. Also I bequeethe to my son William four fedur beds and couchers; and to Richard two fedur beds that he hath, a cou cher that was at London, a cou cher that's here, and a fedur bedde. Item, I bequeth unto them all the hangings of saye which be at Kerbye now, as appeareth by the inventory thereof made; and I woll that William have foure paire of sheets of such sorte as he now occupyeth. Item, to my lady Margaret a payre of little salts of silver and parcell gylt. To my sister Fitz Hugh oon of my standing cupps; alsoe a bedd of tymbre; and such pledges as she hath of mine, I woll they be pledged out by William, and he to have them. Item, to my daughter Hungerford my part of a crosse, which she hath in her keeping for a pledge. Item, to my son George Hastings a good fedur bedde, a bolster, a pair of blankets, a paire of fustians, and a pair of fine sheets. Item, to my nephew William Ferrers and to my niece his wife, a fedure bedde, a bolster, a blanket, a chike happing, an old counterpoint, sillor and tester, which they now occupy in their chamber; alsoe four payre of sheets, and oon of my finest gownes. Item, to my lady Mary a ring, which William Bamsell hath for a pledge, to be pledged out of my goods. Item, to my neece Brokesby, three payre of sheets, and oon of my best gownes: my gownes to be given among my other gentlewomen, and oon to Mrs. Booth, and oon to Margaret Cooke, and oone old gowne to moder Cecil of Leicestre, and oon gown cloth of my greome's livery to Richard Twhytull, &c. &c. &c.

The history of the parish of Gracedieu includes the pedigree of the family of Beaumont, with biographical notices of Beaumont the Poet, and Beaumont the Dramatic writer, whose name is associated with that of Fletcher. Mr. Francis Beaumont the dramatist did not live to complete his 30th year, but a wonderful conformity of fancy subsisted between him and Mr. John Fletcher. The former, it is said, was remarkable for the accuracy of his judgment, and the latter for the force of his imagination. 'They lived together (we are told) on the Bank side, not far from the play house, both batchelors, lay together, and had one bench in the house between them, which they did so admire, the same cloaths, cloak, &c. between them.'

Mr.

Mr. Nichols quotes an Epitaph by Beaumont, which he regards as possessing much of the spirit of Milton and Shakespeare; its conclusion is indeed in the style of the age, but it is a poor conceit, and not the result of good taste:

“ Here she lies, whole spottless fame  
Invites a Stone to learne her name.  
The rigid Spartan, that denied  
An Epitaph to all that died,  
Unlesse for war, on charity  
Would here vouchsafe an Elegie :  
She died a wife ; but yet her mind,  
Beyond virginity refin'd,  
From lawlesse fire remain'd as free,  
As nowe from heat her ashes be :  
Her husband, yet without a sin,  
Was not a stranger, but her kin ;  
That her chaste love might seem no other  
To her husband than a brother.  
Keep well this pawn, thou Marble Chest ;  
Till it be call'd for, let it rest :  
For, while this Jewell here is set,  
The grave is like a Cabinet.”

The reader will smile at the following Epitaph. Did it suggest the idea of those celebrated lines, “ *Three poets in three distant ages born,*” &c.

‘ On William Shakespeare, 1616.

“ Renowned Spenser, lye a thought more nigh  
To learned Chaucer ; and, rare Beaumont, lye  
A little nearer Spenser ; to make roome  
For Shakespeare in your threefold, fourfold tombe.  
To lodge all foure in one bed make a shift,  
Until Doom's day ; for hardly will a fifth  
Between this day and that by Fates be slaine,  
For whom your curtaines may be drawn again.”

Lady Jane Gray having been born at Bradgate Park, in the county of Leicester, the history of this place introduces a long account of that learned and amiable but unfortunate lady, who met an early death with the most heroic fortitude.

From what may be called the sweepings of Church-yards, we take the following epitaphs, one at Castle Donington, and the other in Lockington parish :

‘ On a small plate of copper, on a large alab :

“ Here lieth William Fox, son and heir of  
Simon Fox, and Ellin his wife ;  
both buried the 20th of July, 1585.  
That fatal scythe which cuts in two  
Most nuptial knots, this closer drew :



Life made them one ; Death left them so ;  
A love more constant who can show ?”

*‘ Memoriz sacrum.*

“ If that, reader, thou wouldst know  
Whose sacred dust and ashes owe  
This pious stone, goe first inquire  
Why sighs and weeps the doleful shire.  
If tears could speak, they’l sighing say,  
Here’s hospitalitie’s dead clay.  
Ask the sad church, and thou shalt read,  
Loe here true piety lies dead.  
Next aske the helpless poore, and then  
‘Thou’lt hear too much to aske agen.  
Yet if thy mind be curious still  
To aske of me whose reliques fill  
‘This house of death ; know here I save  
Earth plain, yet just. In this same grave :  
Here such a Bainbrigge coffin’d lies  
Whose losse is theame for weeping eyes.  
I think there’s none in sorrow dombc,  
But men more marble then his tombe.”

Among the eminent Divines, natives or rectors of Thurstaston, we find the names of Dr. Hugh Latimer, formerly bishop of Worcester, and Dr. Richard Hurd, its present venerable prelate. From the biographical sketch of the latter, we shall transcribe the conclusion :

“ Of Bp. Hurd’s character (if this were the proper time or place) little more needs be said. Where Calumny has not even ventured to insinuate a fault, and where Respect and Reverence are the constant attendants, it will be unnecessary to expatiate on good qualities. As a writer, his taste, learning, and genius, are universally confessed. His Sermons are read with not less advantage than they were delivered. With his friends and connexions he has obtained the best eulogium, their constant and warm attachment ; and with the world in general a kind of veneration, which, in times like the present, could neither be acquired nor preserved but by the exercise of great virtues. And here let me be allowed to boast that, from the commencement of my typographic life to the present moment, I have had the honour of uninterruptedly enjoying his lordship’s patronage.

“ This article shall be closed with some lines on the addition of a Library to the Episcopal House at Hartlebury ; where the venerable Prelate has for several years passed the placid evening of life in elegant hospitalities and dignified retirement :

“ Thus Phœbus to Minerva said :

“ By Hurd in all things we’re obey’d :  
Not Socrates, however fervent,  
Was more than HURD your humble servant.

“ Genius and Taste from me he drew,  
But martial dignity from you ;

Now,

Now, with propriety refin'd,  
 He manifests a grateful mind.  
 ' Behold the hoary, Gothic seat,  
 Which rises in that green retreat !  
 To us a votive Temple there  
 Is finish'd, by his filial care.  
 Whate'er in Literature is best,  
 The various treasures of the East,  
 The eloquence of Greece and Rome,  
 Shall dignify the spacious dome.  
 Whate'er in Learning's common weal,  
 Of modern date hath had our seal,  
 Shall to this venerable fane,  
 Through HURD, a free admission gain ;  
 Hence (whom we deem our special care)  
 Each British Genius shall be there.  
 There Locke and Newton claim your smile,  
 And Bacon, glory of the Isle ;  
 There, Chiefs of the poetic band,  
 My Shakspeare and my Milton stand ;  
 And Clarendon, with sterner pride,  
 Shall o'er th' historic ranks preside :  
 Thus, fill'd with all that's good and great,  
 The votive fane shall stand compleat."  
 ' The Maid replied—" If in our shrine  
 His modest merit should assign  
 To his own work a station due,  
 Your observation would be true."

The additions to this Part contain a very interesting detail of the Civil War in Leicestershire, and particularly of the battle of Naseby, which was as fatal to the interest of our Charles I. as the recent battle of Austerlitz has proved to that of the Emperor Francis.

Many plates illustrate this volume, of various descriptions, sizes, and merit : but altogether they add much to the interest and value of the performance ; and, considering their number, they must prevent it from ever being characterized as a dear publication.

**ART. VIII.** *A System of Chemistry.* By Thomas Thomson, M.D.  
 Lecturer on Chemistry in Edinburgh. 2d Edition. 8vo. 4 Vols.  
 2l. 2s. Boards. Robinsons.

**WE** sincerely congratulate Dr. Thomson on the rapid sale of the first edition of his system of chemistry, which was wholly out of print before we could find leisure for examining it. We consider this reception as an honourable testimony to the merits of his work, and at the same time a proof of the discernment

discernment of the public. Indeed, for the rank which the British chemists may claim among the European philosophers, they must be in no small degree indebted to the extensive and judicious display of science exhibited in this performance; which, though open to various remarks which we shall proceed to offer, we do not hesitate to prefer to any elementary treatise on the same subject that has issued from the French school.

The success which Dr. T. thus experienced on the first appearance of this work very properly incited him to redouble his exertions, in order to render a second impression still more deserving of patronage; and accordingly, we are informed, 'almost two-thirds of the whole have been written anew. A great number of additional facts have been introduced, many of them original, either resulting from the experiments of the Author, or with which he has been favoured by some of our most celebrated Chemists. Every publication to which the Author had access has been ransacked; and no pains have been spared to render the Work as complete a transcript as possible of the present state of the science.'

Notwithstanding that the original arrangement has met with many objectors, Dr. Thomson, after mature consideration, has determined to adhere to it. He seems indeed, if possible, to preclude all farther criticism on this point; for he says that no person is qualified to give an opinion on it, who has not the same turn of mind, who does not possess the same information, and who has not bestowed on the subject the same patient meditation as the author himself. It is admitted that the first two requisites may be easily found: but, he adds 'in most cases at least, neither the vanity nor the impatience of reviewers admits of the third.' We do not, however, feel disposed to shrink from the undertaking; and we even flatter ourselves that Dr. Thomson himself will not characterize our remarks as proceeding from either haste or petulance. We acknowledge, indeed, that our limits refuse admission to the detailed examination which the volumes might excite; and that we are obliged to suppress a large portion of those observations which we had actually prepared: but we shall endeavour to render justice to those parts to which we shall find room for advertizing.

The general plan is announced as composed of two parts; the first containing the science of chemistry properly so called, and the second consisting of a chemical examination of nature. It hence appears that the author extends his ideas of the object of 'a system of chemistry' much beyond the boundaries usually assigned to it; and his labors embrace not merely those changes which immediately result from the operations of chemical

chemical affinity, but all the events remotely connected with it; whether cause or effect. We have accordingly a treatise on meteorology, and a view of the animal economy; both of which, though ingenious and interesting, we cannot but consider as misplaced in the present publication. With equal propriety, the author might have introduced the science of medicine; and by the same loose method of classification, he might have gone through almost every branch of natural philosophy. A serious inconvenience, indeed, attends this division; in the first part, he professes to treat of substances in their simple and unmixed form, and in the second in the form under which they actually occur in their natural situations: so that we have the different branches of a subject, which are in reality the most intimately connected, divided from each other, and introduced in separate parts of the work. Thus the first volume presents an account of the properties of the metals, and the action of various substances on them while in their pure state: but the history and description of the ores, from which the metals are extracted, are placed under another department in the 4th Volume. We confess that a considerable part of 'the chemical examination of nature' appears to us altogether extraneous; and the remainder of it might, we think, have been more properly incorporated with the first part.

To the arrangement of the first grand division of his system, the author seems to have principally devoted his attention; and on this part he chiefly rests the merits of his performance. He expressly states in his preface, that 'if this work possess any superiority over others, if it be more perspicuous or more complete, we must ascribe it to the arrangement.' He adds, 'it is independent altogether of hypothesis, and as nearly inductive or analytical as was consistent with the state of the science; it presupposes no previous knowledge of the subject, and begins with those parts of the science which have been most successfully investigated, and which therefore admit of a plainer and simpler mode of illustration.' So far, however, are we from assenting to the opinion which the author has formed of his own production, that we consider the arrangement as the most completely hypothetical of any which has been hitherto published. The whole, indeed, is an attempt to arrange the knowledge which we possess on the subject of chemistry in a scientific form; an object which could not be accomplished until we had previously formed a theory by which the arrangement might be directed. If the science had arrived at a state even approaching to that of perfection, such a plan must evidently be the most desirable; but the work now under consideration affords, we think, in itself a sufficient demonstration of the impossibility

bility of at present carrying that plan into effect. The division of substances into simple and compound appears a natural method of classification, and particularly well adapted to an elementary treatise; which ought to begin by considering substances in their most simple state, and afterward proceed to investigate the changes produced in them by different combinations. Yet, in attempting to execute even this part, Dr. T. is under the necessity of either separating substances which bear the closest analogy to each other, or of violating the fundamental principles of his arrangement. His conduct in this respect has not been uniform; sometimes he has stood firm, and in other instances he has felt himself obliged to yield. Muriatic acid is considered as a simple substance, and is separated from all the other acids; while potash and soda, although it is acknowledged that they have never yet been decomposed, are placed among the compound bodies.

Similar wavering, between adherence to the strict principles of his arrangement or to the natural and obvious characters of bodies, is equally apparent in the more minute parts of the treatise. One of the subdivisions of the first class of bodies is *simple combustibles*; under which title, the author proposes to include 'substances capable of combustion, that have not hitherto been decomposed.' Yet the metals are arranged in a separate chapter; though certainly the greatest part of them are strictly intitled to a place in the former division.—These inconsistencies, and others of a like nature, (which will afterward be pointed out,) proceed, in our opinion, from a radical defect in the plan which the author has pursued, and which no effort of genius or judgment could possibly counteract. Although chemistry is so far advanced as to enable us to lay down some general principle of rather extensive application, yet a great number of the most interesting facts must still be considered as anomalous, and incapable of being reduced to any regular system of classification. The most ingenious and best directed attempt at a scientific arrangement must, we conceive, as in the present instance, prove abortive.

After these remarks on the plan of the work, we must attend to the method of its execution. As it is impossible for us to examine minutely the whole of so extensive a performance, we shall dwell only on such parts as appear most interesting; and especially those in which the author has deviated most widely from the track pursued by former chemists. The first book treats on simple substances; which Dr. T. divides, most singularly, into confinable and unconfinable bodies: the unconfinable bodies being heat, light, electricity, and magnetism. We shall not at present inquire whether these four bodies have any properties

perties in common so remarkable as to render it proper for them to be placed in the same class : but it would certainly have been more philosophical to have employed some positive character in preference to one that is merely negative. Independently of this objection, the mark of distinction adopted by the author is so palpably contrary to fact, that we are altogether at a loss to discover the motives which could have induced him to select it.

The confinable bodies are ranged under four heads ; oxygen, simple combustibles, simple incombustibles, and metals. It happens most unfortunately that oxygen, the first of these simple bodies, has never yet been obtained in a simple state ; the nearest approach to it is oxygenous gas, a compound of oxygen and caloric ; and it will appear that oxygenous gas, and not oxygen, is in fact the subject of the first chapter. Here again we stumble on the inevitable difficulties of a strict adherence to a scientific arrangement. We cannot have any description of the constitution of gases, because caloric has not yet been introduced to us, and we are not supposed to know that such a substance exists. We believe, however, that all Dr. Thomson's readers would have pardoned a little relaxation from the severity of his plan ; and would have preferred a small degree of anticipation, to a chapter professedly on oxygen, in which oxygenous gas is described, and nothing is said respecting the relation which these bodies bear to each other.

Chapter II. on 'simple incombustibles,' is separated into four sections, treating respectively of sulphur, phosphorus, carbon, and hydrogen. The properties of these bodies are stated with peculiar perspicuity and conciseness, and afford an elegant abstract of all the information which we possess concerning them. The authorities are here, as in all other parts of the work, cited at the bottom of the page ; a practice which adds materially to the value of a publication like the present, and which is almost uniformly neglected by the French writers on chemistry. Under the head of sulphur, is introduced a brief sketch of the theories of combustion proposed by Stahl and Lavoisier ; a subject which is more fully discussed in a subsequent part, as one of the sources of caloric. We think, however, that the analytic method, on which the author lays so much stress, would have been better preserved by investigating the properties of caloric, and the nature of combustion, before he had entered on the consideration of the combustible bodies.

Chapter III. on simple incombustibles, contains only two articles, azote and muriatic acid. We think that there are scarcely two substances in the whole range of chemical science,

more dissimilar in their characteristic properties than these which are here placed together ; this, however, in an arrangement confessedly artificial, might be pardoned : but certainly an author who sacrifices so much to system should be consistent. How greatly, then, were we surprised to meet with the following remarks !

‘ There are indeed twelve other incombustible bodies not hitherto decomposed ; but all of them differing so essentially from azote and muriatic acid in their properties, that it is necessary to consider them apart : and at present analogy leads us to place them among the compounds. Even muriatic acid, tho’ its resemblance to azote is striking, differs from it in so many particulars, that I dare not venture to separate it from the class of acids under which it has been hitherto arranged.’

The result of this indecision is that the account of the muriatic acid is very inconveniently divided, and given in two separate parts of the work ; in the first volume, the Doctor treats of muriatic acid gas, and in the second, of this gas united to water in the form of the common muriatic acid. It must likewise be observed that the muriatic acid gas, which is included in this chapter,—and, for the sake of being placed among the simple incombustibles, is thus violently detached from its natural situation,—is itself known to be a compound of a certain base and caloric.

The metals, as was noticed above, are disunited from the simple combustibles, and placed in a separate chapter ; though they are admitted to be simple bodies, and all, except one, have been made to exhibit every phenomenon of combustion. We do not, indeed, disapprove the present arrangement except as connected with the author’s peculiar system ; and certainly nothing can more clearly evince its fallacy, than the perpetual necessity for violating it, under which he is placed.—Some good remarks on metallic bodies in general precede the distinct consideration of the separate metals ; and we are presented with a concise view of the controversy respecting the nature of the operation which they undergo, when they are calcined or oxidated.

We cannot, however, give our sanction to the new nomenclature of the metallic oxids proposed by Dr. Thomson, founded on the relative quantity of oxygen which they contain. The combination of the metal with the smallest quantity of oxygen, he calls the protoxid ; the next, the deutoxid, the tritoxid, and so on, until we arrive at the peroxid, viz. the combination of the metal with the greatest quantity of oxygen with which it is capable of uniting. We dissent from this nomenclature in consequence of its being derived, not from any positive characters in

in the oxids, but altogether from relative characters, and those not of a permanent nature. Were we assured that chemists are now acquainted with all the oxids that actually exist, our objection against this numerical nomenclature would be removed: but the fact is directly contrary; and it is impossible to assign any limits to the discoveries that may be made. Hence it is obvious that the names must be perpetually changing; and that which to-day is the protoxid to-morrow becomes the deutoxid, while some newly discovered combination claims the former title. If colour be not a sufficiently essential characteristic, we may introduce other sensible properties; or it would be better even to employ perfectly arbitrary terms, than such as will perpetually require alteration.

Each of the metals forms the subject of a distinct section, treating of its physical properties, of its oxids, of the action of the combustibles and the incombustibles on it, of its alloys with other metals, and of its affinities. The whole exhibits a very pleasing specimen of the manner in which a system of chemistry should be executed, and contains a correct abstract of what is at present known on this part of the science: the facts are stated with preciseness and perspicuity; and the original authorities are always quoted at the foot of the page. Yet even here we have to lament the intrusion of the author's peculiar system of arrangement. Because he has deemed it more methodical to discuss simple bodies before he enters on any of the compounds, and also because he has determined to separate what he calls chemical science from the chemical examination of nature, the account of the metallic ores and salts is referred to different parts of the performance; so that, if we wish to obtain a complete knowledge of any of the metals, we have first to turn to the 4th volume, where we meet with its ores; then to the first for its physical properties, its oxids, and its affinities; and lastly to the third volume, for its saline compounds.

We next proceed to the unconfinable bodies. Of these, only two, viz. light and caloric, are included in the present work; and Dr. Thomson informs us that he proposes to make electricity the subject of a separate publication, and magnetism he considers as scarcely 'belonging to chemistry'. We coincide with him in this opinion: but it must be observed that it is perfectly inconsistent with his own definition of chemistry.

The chapter on light is a composition which deserves high praise. It furnishes a detail of the different discoveries that have been made on this intricate subject, sufficiently ample, yet not prolix, and related with peculiar perspicuity: but we must remark that, when Dr. T. explains the pro-



duction of colours, a reference ought to have been made to the theory of Delaval on this subject; since, even though we may finally acquiesce in the opinion of Newton, the other hypothesis is too ingenious and important to be overlooked. We think that the Doctor embraces too readily the idea of Ritter, that those rays of light which blacken the muriat of silver act by a deoxidating power; for we suspect that this matter requires farther investigation.

Dr. Thomson's chapter on caloric is perhaps the most important in the whole publication; it is certainly that in which he has given the most ample play to his imagination, and has advanced the greatest number of opinions that are at variance with those which are generally adopted. It is divided into six sections; 1. the nature of caloric, 2. of the motion of caloric, 3. of the equal distribution of temperature, 4. of the effects of caloric, 5. of the quantity of caloric in bodies, and 6. of the sources of caloric. After having in the first section expressed his conviction of the materiality of this fluid, he explains his peculiar ideas respecting its motion. He takes notice of the immense velocity with which it moves through free space, then contrasts this with its slow passage through solid bodies, and proposes a new theory to account for its retardation. This he imagines is caused by a chemical union, which it contracts with the particles of the body through which it is conducted; and in consequence of which it combines successively with the different strata of the body, an operation that requires a sensible portion of time for its accomplishment. Although this hypothesis be not entirely devoid of plausibility, it appears to us perfectly gratuitous: where caloric passes through a body without inducing any change in its state, we have no reason for supposing that the operation in any degree depends on chemical affinity; and we are inclined to ascribe it to a power somewhat analogous to capillary attraction, regulated by the proximity or configuration of the particles.

The comparative power of conducting Heat, which different bodies possess, next comes under Dr. T.'s review; and he relates the experiment which Ingenhousz performed on metals, and those of Meyer on different species of wood. The inferences which are deducible from these two sets of experiments are not strictly analogous, although they are stated by Dr. Thomson as if this were the case. Those of Ingenhousz mark the distance at which metallic cylinders can melt wax, when their ends are placed in a given temperature; and those of Meyer shew the comparative times necessary for equal bulks of wood to acquire the temperature of the atmosphere, when heated to a given number of degrees. The conjecture which is offered, that the affinity of bodies for caloric

caloric 'is in all cases the inverse of their conducting power,' we conceive to be altogether unsupported, and apparently in opposition to the former hypothesis that caloric is conducted through bodies in consequence of their affinity for it.

In section 4th, the effects of caloric are reduced to three general heads, change in bulk, in state, and in combination. The property of caloric in expanding bodies is that by which we are enabled to measure its quantity; and as the rate of expansion differs widely in the several kinds of bodies, it has always been deemed an object of the first importance to ascertain the precise degree in which it takes place. Of Dr. T.'s manner of treating this subject, we are happy to express our high approbation; the experiments and opinions of the various writers are stated with much candor and perspicuity, and the inferences deduced from them are ingenious, without being extravagant. Nearly the same commendation, we think, is due to his remarks on the effects of caloric in changing the state of bodies; although there are perhaps some few instances in which he has shewn too great a desire of drawing general conclusions without a sufficient foundation of facts. Dr. Black's grand discovery of latent heat, or what Dr. Thomson calls the caloric of fluidity, is explained with much clearness; and we have a good view of Mr. Dalton's experiments on the elastic force of steam.—In the next section, on the specific caloric of bodies, or what has been more generally called the capacity of bodies for heat, we meet with much of the same candid and judicious spirit of investigation; intermixed, however, with some occasional attempts at generalizing, in which we cannot but think that the author has been unfortunate. The difference existing in the specific caloric of bodies he supposes to be analogous to the variations which arise in their chemical combinations; whence he rashly infers that the specific caloric of bodies must be proportional to their affinity for it; and, recurring to the hypothesis respecting the conducting power of bodies, he concludes that the specific caloric must be inversely as this power. Were these deductions established, we agree with Dr. Thomson that we should be able to deduce 'the conducting power of bodies from their specific caloric, and the contrary:' but, while both the positions rest on mere assumptions, and one of them involves something like a contradiction, we must be satisfied to proceed in this business according to the former plan of experiment.

In the 6th section, on the sources of caloric, the subject of combustion is executed in a masterly manner; it is minute without being prolix, and concise without being obscure; the hypotheses of others are stated with candor, and the author's own peculiar ideas are brought forwards with modesty. The

theories of combustion, successively formed by Hooke, Mayow, Stahl, Priestley, Crawford, Kirwan, and Lavoisier, all pass under our notice. The merits of the last are fully and fairly appreciated; and while it is allowed that he completely overthrew the doctrine of his antagonists, and succeeded to a considerable extent in the establishment of his own opinion, it is also admitted that difficulties still remain to be removed. Dr. Thomson has endeavoured to elucidate this subject; his speculations are introduced with a proper degree of philosophic caution; and yet, although he himself seems scarcely to regard them in the light of a fully formed theory, he has, with the most striking inconsistency, taken them as the fundamental part of his arrangement,—an arrangement of which he boasts as being ‘independent altogether of hypothesis.’

The author concludes his account of simple bodies with a short chapter containing some general remarks on them. Here he again plunges into the intricacies of his unfortunate method; for he informs us that, though he has chosen to consider only thirty-two bodies as simple, there are twelve others which have never yet been decomposed, but that ‘they so closely resemble other bodies whose component parts are known, that it would be improper to separate them.’ Such a reason we should admit to be decisive in favour of the plan adopted, were it employed in behalf of a system proceeding on the natural order of things: but it ill suits with Dr. Thomson’s former professions and conduct. Let us, however, see what these twelve bodies are; they are ‘the nine earths, two alkalies, and one acid.’ This declaration leaves us still more at a loss than before. The nine earths are rejected from the class of simple bodies, and placed among the compounds, in consequence of their bearing so strong a resemblance to some other bodies which have been decomposed, that it is ‘exceedingly probable that they also are compounds.’ We shall perhaps subject ourselves to the imputation of that ‘vanity and impatience,’ which Dr. Thomson conceives to be characteristic of the disposition of reviewers, when we declare that we are absolutely unable to discover to what substances he can in this instance refer. The separation of the three alkalies we should, no doubt, have considered as a great sacrifice of nature to system: but it is one which we might have expected from an author who so violently detached muriatic acid from its natural allies, for the purpose of placing it in the same class with azote. We are also unable to determine what is the single acid to which he alludes; the fact is that there are two, the fluoric and the boracic; the radicals of which are unknown, as well as that of the muriatic: they are, however, placed among the compounds.

These arbitrary proceedings of Dr. Thomson are in some measure explained in the subsequent paragraph. He acknowledges that the resemblance, mentioned above, was not the only circumstance which guided him in his division of the simple and compound bodies; and that he selected the thirty-two, already enumerated, in consequence of the part which they act in combustion: a process, in which the remaining simple bodies have no share. We deem it unnecessary to make any other remark on this subject, than to express our astonishment that the author should still persevere in regarding his arrangement as 'independent altogether of hypothesis.'—Having thus excluded from the simple bodies all those which have no action on oxygen, it obviously and *most conveniently* follows that oxygen is capable of uniting with all the simple confinable bodies.—How much is it to be lamented that this fatal spirit of generalization should have taken such firm hold on a person possessed of Dr. Thomson's genius and science, as to lead him into such inconsistencies!

The compound bodies are classed under two grand divisions, primary and secondary: the first containing such as 'are formed by the combination of two or more *simple* substances;' the others consisting of two or more *compound* bodies. This division may in some respects be considered as both convenient and natural: but, as we shall afterward notice, it is incompatible with the author's speculations concerning the nature of affinity, according to which secondary compounds can have no existence.—The primary compounds are classed under five heads; alkalis, earths, oxids, acids, and compound combustibles. On this classification we shall merely remark, that two out of the three alkalis, and all the earths, are simple substances, that several of the oxids are compound combustibles, and the greatest part of the compound combustibles are oxids. At length, however, we are liberated from the embarrassments of system, and enter on the examination of the alkalis; here the author again appears in the respectable light of a judicious historian of science, and displays the same acuteness and discrimination which we have before had occasion to admire. We think that the section on ammoniac is particularly well executed, as also the chapter on earths, as far as it extends: but it is extremely defective, in consequence of the plan which the author has adopted, of considering the salts in a separate part of the work, unconnected with the substances from which they are derived.

Dr. T. describes an oxid to be 'a substance formed of oxygen and some other body, and destitute of the properties which belong to acids.' To this definition, no objection can be offered: but, knowing to how large a class of substances it will ap-

ply, we were not a little surprized, in a chapter treating professedly on oxids, to meet only with those of carbon, hydrogen, and azote. We are, however, informed that Dr. Thomson has determined in this place to attend solely to primary or simple oxids, i. e. such as consist of one ingredient and oxygen, referring the compound oxids to other parts of the work. The reason assigned for this glaring dereliction of principle is that these latter 'do not usually go under the name of oxids.' We imagine this to be the first instance in which an author, attempting to establish a new and extensive system of scientific arrangement, was induced to depart from his fundamental principles, because, by adhering to them, he would have been obliged to designate substances by a title that was really appropriate, but which had not previously been attached to them. It is indeed a most extraordinary degree of modesty !

[To be continued.]

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ART. IX. *The Guide to Immortality ; or, Memoirs of the Life and Doctrine of Christ, by the Four Evangelists ; digested into one continued Narrative, according to the Order of Time and Place laid down by Archbishop Newcome ; in the Words of the established Version, with Improvements ; and illustrated with Notes, Moral, Theological, and Explanatory ; tending to delineate the true Character and Genius of Christianity.* By Robert Fellowes, A. M. Oxon. 8vo. 3 Vols. 1l. 4s. Boards. White.

**I**N the list of conscientious, strenuous, and intrepid inquirers after truth, Mr. Fellowes is known by his former publications\* to occupy a conspicuous place ; and his remarks on the character and genius of Christianity merit particular notice, since he possesses a mind unshackled by the chains of system, and an integrity which prevents him from disguising his convictions, or attempting to accommodate the persuasions of his heart to any existing creeds or confessions. Though his writings may displease the prejudiced, they will be acceptable to those who wish to be enlightened ; and if they should be repulsive to the formal or timid Christian, they will delight those who believe the Gospel to be established on a rock, and contend for the privilege of searching the Scriptures.

We live in an age, indeed, in which few dare openly to plead for the mental servility of implicit faith : but some venture to express their fear of the consequences of *inquiring too deeply*, and sound the alarm against innovation. Such persons pay the

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\* See M. R. Vols. 26. 28. 30. 32. 33. 38. N. S. &c.

worst possible compliment to the religion which they profess, and forget that the Gospel of Christ not only does not shrink from, but actually demands the most rigorous examination. If the creed of Christians is to be sought in the Sacred Book, if the Scriptures contain "the words of Eternal Life," or are *the Guide to Immortality*, these require of us a paramount consideration; and every thing that is of subordinate weight and authority should be forced to hold a subordinate place. This resolution, under certain circumstances, might create embarrassment; but the liberal and resolute Christian will endeavour to surmount the difficulties which may press on him, and, in the conscientious discharge of his duty to truth, will "*fear no evil*." Mr. Fellowes is a writer of this stamp. In attempting to delineate 'the true character and genius of Christianity,' he proceeds at once *ad integros fontes*; and, instead of explaining the Gospel by human formulæ and confessions of faith, he contends for the propriety of bringing these forms to an exact agreement with the Divine standard. By the present work, he would assist the reader in obtaining a clear insight into that history from which our knowledge of Christ and of the genuine doctrines taught by him should be derived:

'It contains every particular of the four Evangelical histories, formed into one clear, consistent and continued narrative, according to the order of time when, and the place where, the several events of our Lord's life happened, his miracles were wrought, and his discourses were delivered. Those who have little leisure to peruse many religious books, will accordingly, in these volumes, find every theological truth recommended which is necessary to be known and every moral duty impressed which is necessary to be practised; and, in short, they will I trust have a faithful and a cheering Guide to Immortality.'

The plan is formed in a great measure, although not entirely, on the model of 'the Elegant Diatessaron of the truly ingenious and learned Dr. White;' which suggested to Mr. Fellowes the idea of drawing up for the use of the English reader a 'Guide to Immortality.'—Since Dr. White's publication, we have been called to notice some Diatessarons in English: but they consisted chiefly in an imitation of the arrangement of the text, without any particular regard to the version, or any notes of consequence. Mr. Fellowes, on the contrary, has paid attention to both these points: but the greater portion of his labor, he informs us, is bestowed on the annotations. The version he has corrected in many instances, partly by the assistance of the commentaries of Wakefield, Symonds, and Newcome, and partly by the exercise of his private judgment. Of the notes, also, some are his own, and some are derived from Grotius,

Rosenmüller,

Rosenmüller, and other German divines.—On the moral precepts of Christ, he has expatiated at some length, and generally in a manner that will be found very satisfactory: but here we shall allow Mr. Fellowes to speak for himself, which he does with great ingenuousness:

‘In the following work, it will perhaps be objected that I have introduced no mysteries; but, whatever is mysterious, is unnecessary. The essentials of religion consist in a few, and those the plainest truths. For, religion is the concern of all men; and, therefore, all that is really important in religion, will be found to be comprised in what all men (in the possession of reason) may understand.—False religions may extol the importance of mysteries; but there is no mystery in the true.—Christ came into the world to reveal to us what we could not otherwise have discovered, but not that which, if revealed, we could not understand.—Whatever communications the Deity shall condescend to make to man, we may be assured, that those communications will be such and only such as it is important for him to know; and consequently such as are within his capacity to understand.—In order to exercise our hopes, our affections and our trust, his communications may, in some instances, as in those which relate to a future existence, exceed the stretch of our present apprehensions; but he will never require us to believe what implies a contradiction in terms, and which is contrary to the clearest deductions of the reason which he gave us. Without obscuring my pages with mysterious ambiguities, my endeavour has been to shew the Christian doctrine in its primitive simplicity, unmixed with the errors of superstition, or the corruptions of false philosophy; and I trust that, if these pages should have the good fortune to be perused either by Jews, Turks or Infidels, of whatever denomination, they will serve to subvert their Antichristian antipathies, and to impress them not only with admiration of the natural loveliness but with a devout sense of the divine original of Christianity.—The objections of the gainsayer are never levelled so much at the genuine doctrine or moral precepts of the gospel, as against the numerous corruptions and absurdities, with which it has been blended in the lapse of ages by artifice or folly; and which, though they have been stoutly defended by the ignorant, the credulous, and the intolerant of all churches and all creeds, will be found, on a serious perusal of these volumes, to have made no part of those truths in the belief and the practice of which Christ placed the conditions of salvation.’

These intimations respecting the “mysteries of religion” may startle some readers: but they tend, it must be owned, to exonerate Christianity from a load of objections, and to give it not a disputatious but a practical aspect. It is that view of his religion which our Saviour draws in his own sermons and discourses; and which, if it does not accord with the precious figments of Popery, is in perfect unison with the principle of Protestantism.

In a subsequent part of the preface, Mr. F. vindicates his right, and that of others, who are clergy of the Establishment, to indulge the freedom of religious inquiry and opinion, from the tenor of the sixth article, which makes the scripture the sole criterion of the truth. This is a delicate point. If the *animus impoſentis* be regarded, we fear that this salvo will not prove sufficient, nor be allowed to cover "all things and every thing:" but Mr. F. asserts the privilege of private judgment in opposition to church authority, and contends that by the sixth article it is clear that the framers of the articles did not mean to invalidate this right. It is bold to maintain such doctrine: but still this is not a satisfactory defence of Subscription. There is some truth, however, in the subsequent remarks:

'When the church of England got rid of one pope, it never intended to raise up thirty-nine in his place; but what would the thirty-nine articles be but thirty-nine popes, if, instead of the scriptures being their expositors, they were made the infallible expositors of the scriptures?'—

'In religious, as well as in civil matters, we are not to deviate from our allegiance to a superior in order to preserve it unimpaired to an inferior authority; we are not to violate a greater duty in order to fulfil a less; we are not to disobey the precepts of Christ, in order to comply with the injunctions, or adhere to the forms of any particular church.'

After such explicit declarations, Mr. F. cannot be accused of dissimulation and hypocrisy. He has entered his protest against what he considers to be error; and how much soever we may respect those who follow up their protest with actual dissent, it fairly becomes a question whether it be not more politic, and likely to be attended with more beneficial consequences, to remonstrate against the objectionable parts of the national creed without proceeding to acts of schism, than to express disapprobation by measures of direct hostility. Separatists are considered as enemies to the Establishment; and, in making proposals for reformation, they are always suspected of intending more than they avow: but, if the great majority of the clergy were to adopt Mr. F.'s sentiments, and to declare them with equal ingenuousness, the desired alterations would follow of course. Their wish would powerfully operate with the legislature, as being the wish of the *friends* not of the *enemies* of the Establishment; and the guardians of the Church would cheerfully concur in measures by which they would be exempted from the necessity of imposing hard conditions on those who enter into Holy Orders.

If it be a fact, as Mr. F. intimates, that nine-tenths of the clergy do not in their hearts accede to certain articles of their church,



church, it is obvious enough that some reformation is requisite either in *them* or in the *articles*; and perhaps a wise and enlightened government will one day call the attention of Parliament to the ensuing suggestions:

‘It would contribute, in no small degree, to the security of the established church, it would remove one principal topic of reproach from its numerous opponents, it would tend to allay the virulence of religious animosity and to produce an unity of affection, even where there is not an unity of sentiment, if parliament would interpose its authority to grant a relief from subscription to articles, and to accept a general profession of faith in the truth of the Christian revelation, instead of that subscription; or, if the articles themselves were reduced to a few simple propositions, scripturally expressed, and clearly and unequivocally sanctioned by the scriptures. But, till this is effected, it behoves the clergy, without being in the least dismayed by the cry of heresy on one side, or the charge of prevarication on the other, strenuously to vindicate that liberty, with which Christ has made us free.’

In the execution of the Harmony, the common version is not uniformly followed: but Mr. F. has attempted what he terms an idiomatic translation, in which the English idiom is preserved in the body of the text, and the foreign is marked at the bottom of the page.

The notes subjoined in general possess such a moral and practical tendency, that, if they do not convey new truths, they will be perused with much pleasure by the scholar as well as by the unlettered Christian; and the latter part of the community, we are assured, will reap much benefit and improvement from an attention to these plain yet striking explications of the moral duties of Christianity.

The first note, which we shall consider, is of some length, and relates to the recurring passage “that it might be fulfilled.” It is here observed, with other commentators, that the Greek *ὥστε* and *οὕτως* may be properly rendered “so that” it was fulfilled. This is just criticism, and the reading gives a more rational air to the Evangelist’s reflection: but it is much to be doubted whether the writer did not intend to imply a *designed coincidence* between the two events. It is certain that the Jews of that period were very fond of construing their scriptures into prophecies of the Messiah; and writing under this strong persuasion, it is but probable that they would consider the event, whatever it might be in the life of the Messiah, which *happened to correspond* with a passage of their prophets, as something more than an *accidental circumstance*. The truth of the case may remain the same: but, in investigating the *historian’s meaning*, where two renderings may be made, it is necessary to

to inquire under what particular impressions he most probably wrote. In the mean time, we are inclined to agree with Mr. Fellowes in this part of his note :

‘ It is evident that many passages, which are cited from the Old Testament, by the writers of the New, are descriptive only of what had been ; and, therefore, cannot be considered as prophetic of what would be ; for, that, which has had its full accomplishment in past time, cannot be regarded, as prophetic of what would be in time to come. For though much has been said about the double senses of prophecy, yet I hardly see how any man, who possesses common sense and a proper reverence for the immutable veracity of God, can contend that any prophecy was ever designed to have *more than one sense*. For, man may promote his interested views by equivocation and duplicity ; but *God has no occasion for it ; and never uses it*. EVERY THING LIKE DOUBLE-DEALING IS INCONSISTENT WITH AND ABHORRENT TO THE PERFECTIONS OF HIS NATURE. When erring or fraudulent man speaks, and particularly when he presumes to predict what will be in future time, it may well serve his purpose to have two or two-and-twenty senses affixed to every word which he uses, that he may have as many subterfuges to save his credit and cover his deceit.—But let us beware how we impute to God the artifices of a juggler.’

The last sentence of this quotation might have been expressed in more reverent terms ; and it ought to be admitted that those, who differ in opinion from Mr. F. in this matter, do not deserve the imputation which his expostulation seems to convey.

We proceed to a very protracted note on that intricate part of the memoirs of the life of Jesus, “the temptation.”—Taking Rosenmüller for his guide, Mr. F. observes :

‘ The great difficulty is, whether the tempter, who is spoken of, were really that fallen angel, to whom, in scriptural language, the origin of all evil is imputed, or only a wicked and ambitious miscreant, to whom his name is given. The solution of this perplexing question may be facilitated by considering that it is usual for the sacred writers to give the name of Satan or Devil to those who are adversaries to truth and righteousness ; or who endeavour to seduce their fellow-creatures from the straight path of duty, to ensnare them in sin, and to make them err from that line of conduct to which God commands them to adhere : and he who makes this attempt is *ὁ ῥυπαρός* or the tempter. Thus the word Devil or Satan (and which are often employed promiscuously, the one for the other,) is used generally to signify any calumniator of, or enemy to, the truth ; any one who, by art, by subtlety or violence, endeavours to hinder the progress, or to deceive, and to oppose the advocates, of Christianity. As St. Paul, Tit. ii. 3., enjoins the elder women not to be *διαβολαί*, devils, or given to calumniating ; and 2 Tim. iii. 3, among other words expressive of great depravity, he uses *διαβολαί* Devils, given to calumny. And Ephes. iv. 27, he says, “Give not way to the Devil,” or, Do not act so as to afford any fair occasion of reproach to the adversaries of

of the truth. And the word has a similar meaning, 1 Tim. iii. 7. "He must have a good report of them that are without; lest he fall into reproach and the snare of the DEVIL." — "And one of you is a DEVIL;" (John vi. 70.) meaning an enemy or false accuser. In Matthew xvi. 23. we find our Lord saying to Peter, "Get thee behind me, *Satan*," meaning simply, but, in the language of indignation, — *Thou enemy*; that is, an enemy giving evil and pernicious counsels. The word Satan has a similar signification in 1 Chron. xxi. 1. And Satan stood up against Israel, and provoked David to number Israel. "It is usual in Scripture phrase," (to use the language of archbishop Tillotson) "to ascribe all evil thoughts and actions to the Devil; not that he is the immediate cause of them, but because he is always ready to tempt men to them, and one way or other to promote them." See Tillotson's Serm. on the Knowledge of God, vol. i. serm. lxxx. fol. 604. And it is usual likewise to ascribe actions or words to Satan, which were done or spoken by wicked or artful men. Thus St. Peter says; "Be sober, be vigilant; for your adversary the *Devil*, like a roaring lion, is roaming about, seeking whom he may devour;" where the word Devil is used to denote the sanguinary adversaries of the Christian faith. Thus St. Paul says, 1 Thess. ii. 18. "We would have come unto you, but *Satan* hindered us;" where the word Satan does not mean the fallen angel whom we emphatically call THE DEVIL, but some enemy or enemies to the Christian cause, who resembled THE DEVIL in subtlety of mind and malignity of heart. — I think therefore that, with the judicious Rosenmüller, we may fairly infer, that he, who is said to have tempted our Lord in the passage which we are considering, and to whom the name of the *Devil* is given, was some crafty and wicked miscreant, some designing and factious man who wished to seduce Jesus from the path of duty; and probably to render him subservient to his own ambitious projects and interested views.'

Whatever may be the truth in this question,—and it is no easy matter to decide,—we must confess that we regard the ingenious solutions of the learned Farmer as less forced, and less difficult to admit, than this of the German theorist. We would not, however, insist in very positive terms on either this or that interpretation: for wherever the machinery of aerial beings is introduced into a narrative, we have no longer any clue of reason or experience to guide us; and unless we can suppose it to have been a vision, as Farmer conjectures, we are reduced to the alternative of acquiescing in the marvellous part of the history, or of considering it as a narrative distorted in the bold figures of the East.—We quit this subject, for one of a more intelligible kind, — the duties of the Sabbath. Here we are gratified with an excellent note; which is the more welcome, as we have heard that the ceremonious observance of the Sabbath has lately been a fashionable topic of pulpit eloquence in this metropolis:

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' Our Lord appears to have wrought more miracles on the sabbath and amid a greater concourse of spectators than on any other day; and this he evidently did to teach us that a superstitious adherence to the letter of the commandment (*Thou shalt do no manner of work, &c.*) was not designed by the wise Author of this most benevolent institution; and that we cannot keep the sabbath-day so holy, by any other means as by devoting it to the service of humanity; to the physical and moral good of our fellow-creatures. In the course of this work I shall frequently have occasion to repeat this remark, and which I think necessary in order to counteract that tendency, which is observable among a large mass of people, to keep the sabbath with the same ceremonial precision and hypocritical austerity, with which it was observed by the Pharisees in the time of our Lord. But the Christian sabbath cannot be kept holy in the way in which it was kept by the founder of Christianity, unless it be consecrated by acts of charity as much as or even more than the exercise of devotion.— And one of the greatest acts of charity, which we can do to our suffering fellow-creatures on that day, and particularly to those among them who, during the other six days of the week, are employed in manual toil, is to teach them so to divide their time on the sabbath, as to combine moral improvement with innocent recreation.'

If this should by some be deemed novel doctrine, it is, we apprehend, sound doctrine, and such as in the days of James I. would have been recognized in this country: but the puritan system afterward arose, and, like a dark cloud, overshadowed the Sabbath with its gloom.

The subsequent remarks are well worth attention:—if we rightly recollect, Bishop Hurd has given an excellent sermon on the subject:

"*Speak well of you.*" Popular favour is seldom to be obtained without a thousand dishonest contrivances, utterly inconsistent with the openness, the simplicity and integrity of the Christian character.—This is particularly true with respect to the ministers of the Gospel; who, if they do their duty, not as men servers, but as the servants of Christ, not as the sycophants of princes, but as the worshippers of the living God, must often speak truths and inculcate duties so adverse to the prejudices and so irreconcilable with the sensuality, the lust, the pride, the avarice and injustice of mankind, as to incur more obloquy than praise; and to become the objects of persecution rather than applause. This observation of our Saviour, "*Alas for you, when men shall speak well of you!*" was more especially applicable to the early teachers of his religion; who were universally spoken against; as if they were the mere scum and refuse of the earth; and to this weight of scorn and this deluge of abuse, they were exposed because they spoke the plain unvarnished truth as they had received it from him, who was truth itself, without basely trusting, as the false prophets and false Christs did in order to serve their temporal ends, to the superstitions and the prejudices, to the notional delusions and the moral abominations of mankind. And, even at the present day, though we have nothing to dread from Heathen persecution, yet those

those moral teachers of Christianity, who, instead of garbling its precepts and corrupting its simplicity, dare boldly to vindicate and without any reserve to preach the plain unsophisticated moral doctrine of their master, cannot expect to be well spoken of by men, who make mystery their delight and moral duty their abhorrence. — The moral servant of Christ Jesus must expect to incur the obloquy of men like these; but such obloquy is his greatest praise; and though it may subject him to present inconvenience, it will finally conduct him to everlasting glory.'

We afterward meet with a note on the 'sexual appetite;' (page 196;) some part of which, however accurate the position may be, is rather indelicately worded. Hunger and thirst are gratified in 'the sight of the sun;' but are we to imitate the manners of Diogenes, or of the people of Otaheite, in the indulgences of sense? We are sure that Mr. F. had no such meaning: but his remarks on this subject require to be somewhat restricted and *chastened*.

Mr. Fellowes ends, as he began, with pointing to the features of primitive Christianity. The following note on the conclusion of John's Gospel manifests the enlightened and resolute disciple of Christ:

"*That Jesus is the Christ, the son of God.*" The doctrine and the miracles of Jesus were recorded by the Evangelists, principally to prove and confirm this great truth, that "*Jesus is the Christ, the Son of God.*"—Such was the plain, the unsophisticated and simple confession of faith required by the apostles; and it would have been well for the peace and happiness of mankind, and for the increase of true righteousness and godliness in the world, *if Christian societies had never required any other.* But the original simplicity of the Christian faith has been perplexed or lost in a multiplicity of articles, and a confusion of creeds, which, instead of improving the morals, have only inflamed the passions of men and given rise to endless disputations. May this book contribute to promote more rational notions, and to inspire a better spirit in the Christian world!—I have written it only with that view, and I trust that there is not a sentiment contained in it, which can *justly* give occasion for any reproach on my integrity when living, or on my memory when dead.

ROBERT FELLOWES.'

Though our illustrations have been chiefly quoted from the first part of this work, numerous other passages merit specification if we had adequate space: but we must now take leave of these volumes, echoing our approbation of the just and manly sentiments which they contain, and expressing our earnest desire that they may be instrumental in diffusing among Clergy and Laity, Christian truth, Christian piety, and Christian charity.

ART.

ART. X. *Miscellanies, Antiquarian and Historical.* By. F. Sayers, M.D. 8vo. pp. 174. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

ON a former occasion \*, we paid our respects to Dr. Sayers as a metaphysical and literary essayist; and we are now to contemplate him in the character of an antiquary. In this latter province, he professes to give 'short hortatory remarks' rather than elaborate treatises; and if we cannot bestow the same portion of commendation on his *Miscellanies* which we allotted to his *Dissertations*, we are ready to allow that they display a mind formed by nature and qualified by culture to render service to literature.

In his first Essay, on the term "Hebrew," adhering to the meaning of the root עבר *to pass over*, Dr. S. considers the word עברית, *Hebrew*, as alluding to the residence of the founders of the Jewish people beyond the river, (the Euphrates,) and not as having been borrowed from their ancestor *Heber*. He states that it answers to the word *transfluvial*, and regards it as applicable to the people at large. He observes, however, that 'it does not appear that the moderns meant, by denominating the Jewish tongue *Hebrew*, to define the *nature* and origin of that tongue, but merely to express that it was the language used by the *Hebrew* (i. e. the *transfluvial*) nation.'

The next paper, or essay, contains 'remarks tending to prove that the Melita, on which St. Paul was shipwrecked, was the Melita of the Mediterranean.' No notice is here taken of the ingenious Mr. Bryant's observations, in which he endeavoured to shew that this island was the Melita of the Adriatic. He is certain that the modern Malta lies more in St. Paul's track than the Adriatic Melita, which is opposite to the coast of Illyricum; and that it is more likely that the Apostle should have found, in the port of the former than in that of the latter island, a ship bound from Alexandria to Italy. We must recollect, however, that the ship, after having left Crete, encountered a violent storm, and in an unmanageable condition was "driven up and down in Adria." Other circumstances, also, which are enumerated by Mr. Bryant, tend to weaken Dr. Sayers's conclusion.

An investigation follows relative to the history of St. George, the patron Saint of England, for the purpose of proving that this person is not the 'George of Alexandria,' but a renowned Christian knight, one of Diocletian's martyrs. Dr. S. thinks that the ancient rituals and service books of the Eastern church furnish evidence in support of this supposition: but we cannot

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\* See Rev. Vol. x. N. S. p. 373.

regard them as decisive on this point; and the Gothic fragment, which he translates, is of too legendary a cast to be received as an historic document. We shall nevertheless transcribe Dr. S.'s view of the subject:

‘ St. George was a Saint of high repute in the Eastern Church at a very early period; he was a Cappadocian of a good family, a commander of note in the time of Dioclesian, and after obtaining the honourable title of Count, he finally suffered martyrdom on the twenty third of April, the day on which his festival is still kept.

‘ Such is the brief, but, as I conceive, authentic account of St. George, which we collect from the venerable memorials above-mentioned, and the testimony which they afford us is, at least in some degree, corroborated by other evidence.

‘ The institution by Constantine of a religious order of knighthood, under the title of *St. George*, in which was worn a red cross, with the words *α τοῦ ἁγίου*, may certainly be adduced as a proof that our Saint was believed, in the time of that Emperor, to have been a christian warrior, and probably a martyr, of high rank and distinction.

‘ The churches too which were erected in the East, in honour of St. George, are an additional evidence of the truth of what I have advanced above; the most remarkable of these was that which, according to Procopius, was founded by Justinian, in Armenia; that of Lydda, which was afterwards repaired by our Richard I, and that at Mangana, which, together with a Monastery, was built by the Bishop of Euchaita; the founders of these churches, as indeed appears as well from the dedications of the buildings, as from some particulars preserved respecting them, certainly attributed to St. George the same character as that which we collect of him from the rituals of the Greeks.’—

‘ George, the *Arian*, or, as he has been called from the place of his birth, George of Cappadocia, has by some writers been supposed to be the same person as the Saint of whom I have hitherto been speaking; the history of this man may be comprised in a few words: he appears to have been born of obscure parents, but, by his assiduity and obsequiousness, he obtained a profitable employment in the army, in which situation he acquired great wealth; having imbibed the opinions of Arius, he contrived, by the assistance of partisans of a similar faith, to force himself into the seat of Athanasius, at Alexandria: the power which he had thus obtained was exercised to the worst of purposes; he not only persecuted with severity the opposers of his theological opinions, but by his illiberal conduct in other respects, he provoked a general indignation: but the career of his violence and injustice was at length effectually checked; he was degraded, thrown into prison, and soon after massacred in a popular tumult. He was exalted to the primacy of Alexandria in the reign of Constantine, and perished under Julian.

‘ This narrative cannot I think but convince every unprejudiced reader, that George the Arian was a very different person from St. George of the East, for without insisting upon the difficulty of introducing

placing into the Catholic calendar a heterodox army-contractor, whose title to the honour of martyrdom was *openly disputed* by Epiphanius, the particulars of his life, no less than the *mode* and *period* of his death, are utterly irreconcilable, by any ingenuity, with the history of the more ancient St. George.'

In conclusion, he adds :

'*The red cross*, which is usually attributed to St. George for an armorial bearing, was possibly adopted from the institution of Constantine's order of knighthood, that the figure of the same Saint *armed and on horseback*, expresses his martial character, and was introduced by the Greeks at a very early period ; that the *dragon* which he is depicted as slaying is generally, and I believe justly, deemed to be the symbol of Paganism ; and that the figure of a *young woman kneeling* by St. George, which is frequently met with in paintings and carvings, was either designed as a type of some city or province imploring his aid, or may have been rather intended to represent the damsel whom he is reported to have so gallantly saved from destruction.'

The Doctor does not appear to be himself exempt from that 'indignation' which he regards 'as not altogether unpardonable in an Englishman, against the mean and cruel George of Alexandria;' and if we had not other saints whose history is blackened by traits of meanness and cruelty, we should applaud this indignation, and thank him for his generous efforts to place our ghostly Patron in a more respectable light than that in which he is exhibited in the pages of Gibbon.

From the author's sketch of the rise and progress of English poetry, we select the following passages :

'At the Norman conquest, the Anglo-Saxon tongue, and of course the Anglo-Saxon poetry, were anxiously discouraged ; Tallicfer and Berdic, the minstrels of the Conqueror, accompanied their master to England, and Norman poetry was consequently introduced. Philip de Than, who lived in the time of Henry I. and who was the author of the *Liber de Creaturis*, appears to have been the first poet in England who composed in the Norman tongue ; his example was followed by Nantueil, by Gaimar, and by Wace ; the *Brut* of this latter writer was finished about 1155, and was rimed ; other writers might be enumerated who composed their poetical works in the Norman dialect ; but it is enough to observe, that the *pure Norman* school of poetry seems to have prevailed from the reign of the first to that of the second Henry.

'To the Norman succeeded the *Anglo-Norman* school ; in this the Saxon dialect was preserved, but with an uncertain mixture of Norman words ; the first writer of this school was Layamon, who translated Wace's *Brut* ; the author of the *Land of Cockayne* is another composer of the same class, though the Saxon prevails more in his composition than in the work of Layamon. Robert of Gloucester, Manning, and a few other writers of inferior note, constitute the remainder



mainder of this school. The favourite materials of the poets, both of the Norman and Anglo-Norman schools, were the tales of *Chivalry* and *Romance*; this species of writing, if not invented in *Armorica*, was thence imported into England, and chiefly through the medium of the Normans. The minstrels of William the Conqueror, who sang to his troops the animating praises of Charlemagne and Roland, may justly be considered as the earliest introducers of the strains of Romance; and the subsequent acquisition of the Exploits of King Arthur, of the Geste of King Horne, of Turpin's Charlemagne, and of many works of a similar kind, propagated a very general admiration of that species of composition, and excited in the poets of the time an eager desire to translate, or to imitate, productions of so fascinating a kind.

The Anglo-Norman school of poetry was followed by that which I cannot better distinguish than by the denomination of *Englub*: of this school Chaucer is the acknowledged father; the language indeed of this writer abounds, like that of his immediate predecessors, with Norman words, but the eminence of his productions fixed with tolerable stability that mixture of French and Saxon which was to constitute the basis of the English tongue; and although it cannot be denied that many of the words which he has used are now become obsolete, yet the general structure and composition of our language have never been materially changed since the period in which he wrote.\*

The first traces of an imitation of the Italian writers occur, as the author observes, in the works of Chaucer: but the example was little followed till the reign of Elizabeth, when Spenser and a few of his party established a school of poetry, justly celebrated under the name of the *Italian*. Shakespeare formed himself on no model. Milton had in his contemplation not less that of the antients than that of modern Italy. The metaphysical poets, from Donne to Cowley, copied all the faults of Marino. Dryden, in his versification, it is evident, had in his view the French writers; and he, with Pope, and his other imitators, constitute a school which may be termed the *French*. Collins and Gray may be regarded as the founders of the *Greek* school.

The 'Hints on English Architecture' are very concise and superficial.

It is impossible not to commend the liberal and patriotic spirit which is conspicuous in the attempts of the author to call forth attention to Saxon literature; the neglect of which, in a highly literary nation, is not a little extraordinary. Researches of this sort, as tending so directly to make us better acquainted with the genius of our language, to illustrate constitutional points, and to elucidate our history, present the strongest claims to British attention. Dr. Sayers testifies his regret at the extinction of the Saxon Professorship at Cambridge founded by Spelman, the chair of which had been adorned by

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by Wheelock and Somner. At the sister University, an institution of this sort still exists: but we have not heard of any recent benefits which the public has derived from it. We know of no language of reprehension too severe to be applied to patrons, who, by instances of improper choice, occasion the laudable intentions of the benefactors of letters to be defeated.—Dr. S. pays a proper tribute to the labours of Strutt and Turner.

Perhaps our history nowhere furnishes a more striking instance of the *Nolo episcopari*, than in the conduct of Anselm in the reign of Wm. II., as here depicted in the translation from Eadmer of the particulars of his promotion to the Archiepiscopal dignity of Canterbury; and it is an amusing specimen of a very antient historical composition of the Norman school.—Sketches of the lives of Edgar Atheling and Edmund Mortimer form the remainder of this small volume, which is creditable to Dr. Sayers as an author, in respect to style, taste, and judgment.

ART. XI. *Supplementary Pages to the Life of Cowper*, containing the Additions made to that Work, on reprinting it in Octavo. By William Hayley, Esq. 4to. 7s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1806.

IT may be remarked of Cowper as it was said of Johnson, that he is a literary comet with a long tail. His biographer, with an enthusiasm which we cannot persuade ourselves to condemn, swells the life of his poetical friend with supplement added to supplement, and perhaps *necdum finitus Orestes*. The amiable and contemplative Cowper is, indeed, a subject of so much interest, that we feel ourselves obliged to Mr. Hayley for endeavouring to render it complete justice.

In our account of the former volumes, (see M. R. Vol. xli. N. S. p. 225. and xliv. p. 241.) we adverted to the awkward circumstance of his separation from Lady Austen, whose genius rendered her singularly qualified to be the companion of the poet; and we regretted the suppression of Cowper's farewell letter to Lady A., which was so necessary to the elucidation of this affair, and to remove suspicions which might possibly arise in the breast of the reader. Mr. Hayley here again alludes with clearness, and yet with delicacy, to this incident, and exerts his best endeavours to vindicate Mrs. Unwin for 'feeling apprehensive' of the consequences 'of Lady Austen's fascinating powers.' We copy the passage entire:

'In those very interesting conferences with which I was honoured by Lady Austen, I was irresistibly led to express an anxious desire for the sight of a Letter, written by Cowper in a situation, that must

have called forth all the finest powers of his eloquence as a monitor and a friend. The lady confirmed me in my opinion, that a more admirable Letter could not have been written; and, had it existed at that time, I am persuaded from her noble frankness, and zeal for the honour of the departed poet, she would have given me a copy. But she ingenuously confessed, that in a moment of natural mortification she burnt this very tender, yet resolute Letter. I mention the circumstance, because a literary correspondent, whom I have great reason to esteem, has recently expressed to me a wish (which may perhaps be general) that I could introduce into this compilation the Letter in question. Had it been confided to my care, I am persuaded I should have thought in very proper for publication, as it displayed both the tenderness and the magnanimity of Cowper: nor could I have deemed it a want of delicacy towards the memory of Lady Austen to exhibit a proof, that, animated by the warmest admiration of the great poet, whose fancy she could so successfully call forth, she was willing to devote her life and fortune to his service and protection. The sentiment is to be regarded as honourable to the lady. It is still more honourable to the poet, that with such feelings, as rendered him perfectly sensible of all Lady Austen's fascinating powers, he could return her tenderness with innocent gallantry, and yet resolutely preclude himself from her society, when he could no longer enjoy it without appearing deficient in gratitude towards the compassionate and generous guardian of his sequestered life. No person can justly blame Mrs. Unwin for feeling apprehensive, that Cowper's intimacy with a lady of such extraordinary talents might lead him into perplexities, of which he was by no means aware. This remark was suggested by a few elegant and tender verses, addressed by the poet to Lady Austen, and shewn to me by that lady.

‘Those, who were acquainted with the unsuspecting innocence and sportive gaiety of Cowper, would readily allow, if they had seen the verses, to which I allude, that they are such, as he might have addressed to a real sister. But a lady, only called by that endearing name, may be easily pardoned, if she was induced by them to hope, that they might possibly be a prelude to a still dearer alliance. To me they appeared expressive of that peculiarity in his character, a gay and tender gallantry, perfectly distinct from amorous attachment. If the lady, who was the subject of the verses, had given them to me with a permission to print them, I should have thought the poet himself might have approved of their appearance, accompanied with such a commentary.’

The biographer has exercised all his dexterity in support of the platonic feelings of the poet: but, as it is well known that friendship between the sexes is nearly allied to Love, it is possible that Cowper might have felt one of the little Urchin's darts; and that, when he wrote the amorous verses to Lady Austen, he was really in love with her. That he had fortitude sufficient to conquer his passion for this accomplished Lady, in order to appease the jealousy of ‘the generous guardian

dian' of his sequestered life,' is much to his praise : but Mrs Unwin was too selfish in forcing him to renounce the solace of such extraordinary talents as those of Lady Austen.

After this paper, a digression occurs, which is thus introduced :

' Add after the Letter to Samuel Rose, Esq. August 18, 1792.

' The kind wishes, that my guest thus addressed to Mr Rose from Earsham, recal so forcibly to my heart a sense of Cowper's cordial and merited esteem for this very interesting friend, and of my severe affliction in having recently lost him, that I trust the reader will forgive me, if I here make a pause in the work before me, to pay a tribute of regard to the memory of a highly promising character, whose early death has proved to all, who had the pleasure of knowing him, a source of affectionate regret.

' The preceding Letters of Cowper to this amiable young man must have prepared even such of my readers, as may be strangers to his person, to take an interest in his fate ; and the generous zeal, with which he delighted to assist me in illustrating the life of the poet, whom he fervently loved and revered, entitle him to a record of tender distinction in these pages. Our mutual attachment to Cowper led us to become intimate and confidential friends to each other : and the inscrutable decrees of Heaven have now made it my duty to commemorate the endearing qualities of my younger friend, whose amiable and affectionate hand I could have wished employed in rendering such an office of kind remembrance to me, instead of his receiving it from mine.'

The manner in which this biographical notice is composed evinces that Mr. Hayley possesses a heart formed for friendship ; we well knew the subject of it, who was not more endeared to the writer of these lines by the ties of consanguinity, than he was esteemed for the qualifications of his mind and the attributes of his character ; and we can vouch for the truth of Mr. H.'s eulogium, and the general accuracy of his historic detail. Mr. R. was the only surviving son of the late Dr. William Rose, of Chiswick, Middlesex ; was bred to the profession of the bar ; and after having encountered those trying delays (aggravated by the growing claims of a young family) which attend the aspirant for legal honours, was carried off in a decline at the period when success and distinction seemed ready to crown his efforts. He died Dec. 20, 1804, in the 38th year of his age ; leaving a widow, with four boys, one of whom is the godson of Mr. Cowper, and bears his name.

The additional Letters, inserted in this volume, consist of a series addressed by the poet to the Rev. Walter Bagot, and three or four to Lady Hesketh. In the eye of a literary man in retirement, his study is his world ; and the subject which principally occupies his thoughts makes the prominent figure on

his epistolary canvas. During the period of his correspondence with Mr. Bagot, Homer is "the rod that swallows up all the other rods:" but it is amusing to see with what pleasantry and variety he serves up the Old Grecian. Even his disapprobation of certain parts of his author is expressed with humour. He thus writes to Mr. Bagot from Weston Jan. 3, 1787:

' My dear Friend,

' You wish to hear from me at any calm interval of epic frenzy. An interval presents itself, but whether calm or not, is perhaps doubtful. Is it possible for a man to be calm, who for three weeks past has been perpetually occupied in slaughter: letting out one man's bowels, smiting another through the gullet, transfixing the liver of another, and lodging an arrow in the buttock of a fourth? Read the thirteenth book of the Iliad, and you will find such amusing incidents as these the subject of it, the sole subject! In order to interest myself in it, and to catch the spirit of it I had need discard all humanity: it is woeful work; and were the best poet in the world to give us at this day such a list of killed and wounded, he would not escape universal censure; to the praise of a more enlightened age be it spoken.—I have waded through much blood, and through much more I must wade, before I shall have finished. I determine in the mean time to account it all very sublime, and for two reasons—First, because all the learned think so—and secondly, because I am to translate it. But were I an indifferent by-stander, perhaps I should venture to wish, that Homer had applied his wonderful powers to a less disgusting subject. He has in the Odyssey, and I long to get at it.'

The only new piece of poetry is what Mr. H. calls a *lusus poeticus* on killing a viper in the garden, and it is indeed a proof how easily Cowper could play and gambol with the Muse:

#### ' THE COLUBRIAD.

' Close by the threshold of a door, nail'd fast,  
Three kittens sat. Each kitten look'd aghast.  
I, passing swift and inattentive by,  
At the three kittens cast a careless eye;  
Not much concern'd to know what they did there,  
Not deeming kittens worth a poet's care.  
But presently a loud and furious hiss  
Caus'd me to stop, and to exclaim—"What's this?"  
When, lo! upon the threshold met my view  
With head erect and eyes of fiery hue  
A viper, long as Count de Grasse's queue. }  
Forth from his head his forked tongue he throws,  
Darting it full against a kitten's nose;  
Who having never seen in field or house  
The like, sat still and silent, as a mouse.  
Only, projecting with attention due  
Her whisker'd face, she ask'd him—"Who are you?"

On to the hall went I with pace, not slow,  
 But swift as lightning, for a long Dutch hoe ;  
 With which, well arm'd, I hasten'd to the spot,  
 To find the viper. But I found him not,  
 And, turning up the leaves and shrubs around,  
 Found only, that he was not to be found.  
 But still the kittens, sitting, as before,  
 Sat, watching close the bottom of the door.  
 "I hope"—(said I)—"the villain I would kill  
 Has slipt between the door and the door's sill ;  
 And if I make dispatch and fellow hard,  
 No doubt, but I shall find him in the yard :"—  
 For long ere now it should have been rehears'd,  
 'Twas in the garden, that I found him first.  
 E'en there I found him. There the full-grown cat  
 His head with velvet paw did gently pat,  
 As curious as the kittens erst had been  
 To learn what this phenomenon might mean.  
 Fill'd with heroic ardour at the sight,  
 And fearing every moment he would bite  
 And rob our household of our only cat  
 That was of age to combat with a rat,  
 With out-stretch'd hoe I slew him at the door,  
 And taught him *never to come there no more.*'

It has been often remarked that only men of sense can talk nonsense agreeably ; and it is a mark of genius, even when it unbends, to evince its superiority over the vulgar.

At the close of this Supplement, the benevolent author makes an appeal to the feelings of the literary public, which we trust will find them consonant to his own,—equally warm, and equally *active*. It was some years since his intention to publish an edition of Milton, accompanied by all the MSS. of Cowper relative to our great bard, the product of which should be devoted to the erection of a monument to the amiable poet of more modern days. Since the circulation of his proposals to that effect, 'a favourite godson and namesake of Cowper has had the misfortune to become an Orphan at an early age,' and it has occurred to Mr. H. that 'by converting these MSS. relative to Milton, not into a marble monument, but into a little fund, to assist the education and future establishment of this interesting Orphan,' he will offer a tribute of respect to Cowper's memory, than which none 'could be more truly acceptable to his pure and beneficent spirit.' He therefore now intends to print the Latin and Italian poems of Milton translated by Cowper, with all that remains of his projected *Dissertations on Paradise Lost*, in one handsome quarto, at the price of two guineas. The MSS. are already transcribed for the press ; and Mr. H. solicits the public ratification of his truly laudable design.

ART.

**ART. XII.** *Selections from the Spectator, Tatler, Guardian, and Freeholder.* With a preliminary Essay. By Anna Lætitia Barbauld. 3 Vols. 12mo. 1cs. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

**I**F it be generally true of books as of their authors, that "one generation passeth away and another cometh," the observation is particularly verified in those compositions which are aimed at the transient opinions and fashions of the day, and which must lose much of their value when the circumstances that occasioned them are no more. Such are the papers from which the present selections are taken. Though the *Essays* of Addison and his coadjutors might be beneficial in ridiculing the follies and correcting the manners of the age in which they appeared, and indebted as we may be to them for essentially contributing to the refinement of the national taste, we cannot read them with the interest which they excited in our ancestors, nor indeed in many instances feel the pungency of the wit which they contain.

When, therefore, the *Tatler*, *Spectator*, *Guardian*, and *Freeholder*, are now taken from the shelf, it must usually be for the sake of particular papers, and not with the view of a complete perusal. Under this idea, the *Selections* before us have been made; and they are preceded by an *Essay* from the pen of Mrs. Barbauld, which must considerably enhance their value. As a critic, Mrs. B. discriminates with ability, and her appreciation of the general merit of the several compositions under the above stated titles is correct. 'In the *Tatlers*,' she observes, 'there is a great deal of absolute trifling, and the *Spectators* themselves, though the best of the several sets, are very unequally written.' She justly remarks, also, that, since the period in which these papers were composed, 'we are grown more accurate in our definitions, more discriminating in our investigations, more pure in our diction, more fastidious in the ornaments of style; we possess standards of excellence of every kind to refer to, books multiply on our hands, and we willingly consign to oblivion a portion of the old, to make room for the increasing demands of the new.' In adverting, however, to these once popular *Essays*, some account of their original publication will be required; and in this respect Mrs. B. has endeavoured to gratify the curiosity of the reader. We shall make some extracts from her details:

'The *Tatler* was undertaken by Sir Richard Steele, under the fictitious name of Isaac Bickerstaff; which he assumed, as he tells us himself in the dedication to the first volume, in order to take advantage of the popularity the name had acquired from its having been made use of by Swift in his humorous predictions relative to poor Partridge,

the almanac-maker. The first number was published April 12, 1709.—

This publication gave as it were the dawn and promise of its successor, the *Spectator*; and indeed there are papers in it equal in humour to any of the latter: as the account of the freezing of words in Nova Zembla, the Court of Honour, and some others: but, in general, the wit is local and temporary, the style negligent; and even the strain of the graver papers rather gives the idea of a wit who lashes the town, than an elegant moralist who instructs the world. The Tatler abounds in personalities; to some of these the clue cannot now be recovered, and of others the interest has long since been lost. Party spirit also, at the time these papers were published, ran very high; the whigs and tories were so nearly balanced that they maintained for some time an equal struggle, which at length ended in the complete defeat of the whigs, the disgrace of the duke of Marlborough, and the forming that ministry which directed the four last years of queen Anne. Steele took a decided part in favour of the whigs, and introduced a paper against Harley, which lost him his place of Gazetteer. Weary, perhaps, of the responsibility of a paper, of which he was now well known to be the editor, and of being personally threatened, as he often was, for the liberties he took with living characters, he suddenly dropped the work on January 2, 1710. It revived in two months' time, under better auspices and with new associates, and bore the title of the *Spectator*.—

To estimate the good which was done by this publication, we should consider the state of society at the time it was written. Party spirit was high and bitter, the manners of the wits and fashionable young men were still tinged with the licentiousness of the court of Charles II., mixed with the propensity to disorderly outrages and savage frolics incident to a people who were still amused by the Bear Garden, and who had not yet been taught to bend under the yoke of a strict police. The stage was in its meridian of genius and fashion, but disgraced by rant and grossness, which offended the sober and excluded the strict. Men lived much in clubs, and of course drinking was common. There was more separation than at present between the different classes of society; and each was more strongly marked with the peculiarities of his profession. There were learned and there were elegant women; but manners had not received a general polish, nor had women the advantage of a general cultivation. Genius had already attained its perfection, but the reign of taste may be said to have commenced with Addison. The coadjutors of Addison and Steele in this work were Eustace Budgell, Tickell, Hughes author of the *Siege of Damascus*, Henry Martin, Pierce bishop of Rochester, and Mr. Henry Grove, of Taunton; occasionally Mr. Byrom, Parnell, and Pope, whose *Messiah* was first published here, together with various correspondents, some known and others unknown. Of all these Addison was the head of gold. His merit is indeed so superior to that of his associates, that their labours probably live to this day only by being grafted on his fame. Many of their papers are pleasing and instructive: yet, if by any accident they were destroyed, their loss would scarcely be felt amongst  
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the various treasures of English literature; whereas the loss of Addison could not elsewhere be supplied, and would make a chasm not in the number only, but in the species of our fine writers.'—

'The Spectator continued from 1700 to 1714; that is, during the last years of Queen Anne to the beginning of the reign of George the First: and during a time when all the other periodical publications were party papers, and so bitter a spirit of animosity divided almost every company, it was no small advantage that one paper appeared every morning the tendency of which was of an opposite nature, and that presented subjects for conversation which men might canvass without passion, and on which they might differ without resentment. Three thousand of them were sold daily soon after the commencement of the publication; afterwards, it is said, twenty thousand; and it may rebuke our rage for typographical luxury to be told, that the immortal productions of Addison were first given to the public on a half-sheet of very coarse paper, and, before the imposition of a stamp, for the price of one penny.

'The Guardians may be considered as a kind of sequel to the Spectators. They were in two volumes. The strain of them is somewhat less sprightly; but they contain many excellent papers, and among them several by Pope. The Guardian was published in the year 1713, between the seventh and eighth volumes of the Spectator.'—

'The Freeholder was a direct party paper written by Addison alone, on the side of Government, immediately after the rebellion in 1715, when perhaps half of the nation were Jacobites in their hearts.'

It is impossible, in executing a selection of this kind, completely to satisfy all readers. Some may think that the editor has omitted papers which merited insertion, while others may be of opinion that the bulk of these three volumes might have been reduced without loss to the public. On such points it is difficult to decide: but those who are acquainted with Mrs. B.'s literary abilities will take it for granted that nothing is inserted which the reader of taste would have desired to exclude.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1806.

### LAW.

Art. 13. *Cases of Controverted Elections*, in the Second Parliament of the United Kingdom; begun and holden August 31, 1802.

By Robert Henry Peckwell of Lincoln's Inn, Esq. Barrister at Law. Vol. I. 8vo. pp. 528. 13s. Boards. Butterworth. 1805.

**L**ORD Glenbervie, (while Mr. Douglas,) whose labors commenced with the new tribunals for the decision of election petitions, presented the profession with reports which were models of their kind, and which

which have facilitated or even in a degree guided the practice of Parliamentary law. His successors have rendered respectable services in the same line, but they come very far behind their leader. If we except the noble Lord in question, we shall find that the present reporter needs not blush by the side of any of his fellow labourers; his volume exhibits marks of laudable diligence; the composition has the merit of perspicuity; the materials have been selected with judgment; and a laudable aim at brevity is discernible throughout: but this quality is not without its antient accompaniment. The points of law are stated with clearness and distinctness; and the summary of the arguments applied to them indicates a mind which knows how to appreciate the weight that is due to them: but it will be thought that they are too abruptly introduced; and it will most probably be wished that the transactions, out of which they arose, had in some instances been supplied, and in others more fully disclosed. If the reader will pay attention to the chronological relation of these reports; if he will regard them as supplemental rather than independent productions; if, master of the text books, and acquainted with the printed accounts of the prior decisions, he sits down to peruse the performance before us; no complaint will be made, since the volume will be found sufficiently full. It is rarely that we have to accuse authors on the score of brevity; if it be a fault, it is on the right side, and one to which we are disposed to be lenient: to the opposite extreme, many of our precious hours are sacrificed.

On the question whether agency ought to be proved before evidence of bribery is admitted, the arguments used before different committees are collected by Mr. Peckwell, and exhibited under one point of view in the *Dumferling* case, which stands the first in the work: the whole furnishes a complete specimen of the style of British forensic disputation. The evidence of bribery is, we imagine, received previously to agency being established, not as being *de bene esse*, but on the ground of its being the duty of the committee to try the merits of the election generally; and to declare it null if bribery has been practised in favour of the successful candidate, though it cannot be brought home to him. This extent, however, cannot be given to the duty of the committee, without the necessary allegations being contained in the petition.

Mr. Peckwell informs us that 'he has studiously endeavoured to select for the materials of his Reports, such things only as relate to questions of Parliamentary law, and properly belong to a professional book. No more of the facts of each case have been given than are necessary to make the arguments understood, and the arguments themselves have been collected and compressed into one speech only on each side; it is also proper to add, that although the substance of them has been strictly preserved, the language in which they are drawn up, is entirely that of the reporter; the manner in which causes are necessarily conducted before committees, rendering it impossible to adhere, in any degree, either to the language or to the arrangement of the speeches of the counsel.

The Introduction contains an account of the proceedings of the House of Commons in some matters relating to elections, as well in  
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sary to keep it from thawing, in a voyage, for instance, to the East Indies, than could well be employed

Important Experiments, although the title-page announces such, are not to be found in this pamphlet. Dimly illumined by the faint rays of something like a theory, the author is rather extravagant, and attributes too much to his favorite ice and cold. He seems imperfectly to understand chemistry, and mistakes fixed air for common atmospheric air. In one or two passages, may be remarked an odd mixture of pious feeling and a taste for the ludicrous.

#### MILITARY AFFAIRS.

**Art. 16.** *An Address to the Right Hon. W. Windham*, on the public Defence; comprizing a consideration of the Regular, the Militia, and the Volunteer Forces; inscribed to the Inhabitants of the only independent Country now in Europe. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Printed at Southampton;—Ridgway, London.

Extraordinary contingencies undoubtedly demand extraordinary conduct; and very forcible considerations are here urged, by no common writer, as leading to the adoption of energetic measures. Thinking much in unison with the Right Hon. gentleman whom he addresses, this author advises the abolition of the volunteer system, the incorporation of the whole of the Militia with the line, and material alterations in the regular army. On the latter subject, he certainly recommends some salutary steps; and especially the adoption of that fundamental principle, the selection and encouragement of *talents* in preference to every other claim. His comparisons of our practice with that of the enemy in this respect, and his representation of the urgent necessity of our following his example as the only means of counteracting its effects, are equally striking and just.—With regard, however, to the Volunteers and the militia, it is remarkable that he offers no modification nor succedaneum for such *constitutional* force; though he intimates that, if ever less perilous times should recur, a militia might again be instituted.—The plan brought forwards by the Secretary at War, since the publication of this pamphlet, supersedes the necessity of farther comments on the author's propositions.

#### MEDICAL, &c.

**Art. 17.** *Quincy's Lexicon-Medicum. A new Medical Dictionary*; containing an Explanation of the Terms in Anatomy, Physiology, Practice of Physic, *Materia Medica*, Chemistry, Pharmacy, Surgery, Midwifery, and the various Branches of Natural Philosophy connected with Medicine. To which is added a Glossary of Obsolete Terms. By Rob. Hooper, M. D. F. L. S. &c. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Longman and Co.

The nature of this publication is sufficiently expressed in the title. It professes to be an enlargement and correction of the well known work of Quincy; a work which, for many years, was deservedly considered as the best manual for the use of the medical student. The great advances, however, which have been made in the different medical sciences, and the total revolution which medical theory has experienced,

perienced, have rendered the dictionary of Quincy nearly obsolete, and reduced its value almost entirely to the consideration that it affords a good view of the mathematical hypotheses which were in vogue when it was written. Under these circumstances, Dr. Hooper was employed to modernize it; and he has produced a volume which contains little of the original, except the title. Such a work can scarcely be considered as an object of minute analysis or criticism. The chief merit for which we look, in a compilation of this nature, consists in accuracy and selection; and, as far as we are able to judge, this publication possesses a requisite portion of both these qualifications. There is no scope for genius or originality, but the author displays extent of research, and seems to be in possession of the latest information respecting the topics on which he treats.—We regret that he has not added to the value of his production by giving accurate references to the sources whence he has derived his materials.

Art. 18. *The Rights of Infants; or a Letter from a Mother to her Daughter relative to the Nursing of Infants.* By Mrs. Dawbarn. 8vo. 1s. Vidler 1805.

This pamphlet appears to be written by a well disposed female, who has been conversant with the management of children, and regards herself as removed above the vulgar prejudices which so much prevail in that department. Her advice is principally directed to the middle class of society; and there are few persons of that description, perhaps, who may not peruse it with some advantage. The observations are arranged under the heads of washing, dressing, feeding, exercise, air, sleeping, and the administration of medicine. Mrs. D. is a strenuous advocate for the practice of mothers suckling their own infants, and enumerates the evils that too frequently attend the custom of putting out children to nurse. On these particulars we perfectly coincide with her: we do not, indeed, perceive any thing very novel or striking in her remarks: but, as we deem it of consequence that such important subjects should be brought before the public under a great variety of forms, we are fully disposed to sanction them with our approbation.

Art. 19. *A Practical Account of a Remittent Fever, frequently occurring among the Troops in this Climate.* By Thomas Sutton, M.D. 8vo. 2s. Robinson. 1806.

Dr. S. here gives an account of a remittent fever, which he has frequently observed among the military in this island, during the colder seasons of the year. It evidently appears to be contagious, and at first view its most obvious characters differ little from those of common typhus: but, on strict examination, an affection of the lungs will be found to be present; and this symptom, although not the most distressing to the feelings of the patient, seems to be that against which the efforts of the practitioner should be the most strenuously directed. Great heat of the skin prevails during the whole course of the complaint, the nervous system is much deranged, the stomach and bowels are often disturbed with vomiting and diarrhoea, the limbs are affected with violent pain, and the pulse (for the most part) far exceeds its accustomed standard. A cough also accompanies these complaints,

complaints, which at first is often so slight as to escape notice, and is unattended with any considerable expectoration. If the attack be treated merely as a disease of debility, and recourse be had in the commencement to stimulants, the morbid appearances are usually aggravated, and a fatal termination frequently supervenes. On inspection after death, inflammation is sufficiently manifest in the thoracic viscera, and generally in those of the abdomen, although in a less degree.

In the treatment of this fever, especial attention must be paid to the state of the lungs, and the tendency to inflammation; and, accordingly, blood-letting has been found the most effectual, indeed almost the sole remedy on which any confidence could be placed. This system has been carried to an extent which, in this country, is very unusual; yet, if we are to rely on the authority of Dr. Sutton, its effects seem to have been very decidedly beneficial. The number of successive bleedings, employed in some of the cases, will indeed appear almost incredible to an English practitioner: but it must be remembered that the subjects of the author's treatment were not taken indiscriminately from both sexes, and from all ages and conditions, but were uniformly men in the vigour of life, and habituated to laborious exercises. Still, after we have admitted these considerations, we must acknowledge that the practice is very different from that which we should in theory have been inclined to recommend. Probably, like other novelties, it may have been pushed too far: but we certainly think that the subject deserves serious attention, more especially from those who are engaged in a similar department of the profession.

Art. 20. *A Treatise on Tropical Diseases; on Military Operations; and on the Climate of the West Indies.* By Benjamin Moseley, M.D. &c. &c. 4th Edit. 8vo. 12s. 6d. Bds. Nichols, Longman, &c.

This work came under our review on its first publication, several years ago: but we are induced to notice it again, in consequence of an additional section which it now possesses, on the influence of the moon on the human body. The supposed agency of this planet was among the earliest of medical superstitions; and in the first stages of society, it was universally admitted, even by those who were distinguished for their science. A more enlightened philosophy has, in a great measure, banished these notions; yet we occasionally find them supported in the present day. As it is acknowledged that the moon has a powerful effect on the aqueous part of our globe, it is not impossible that her influence may extend to its other constituents; and observation alone can determine how far this is the case. Dr. Moseley is a strenuous advocate for the existence of the lunar influence on the human body; and he brings forwards, in support of his opinion, a long train both of facts and authorities. As to the latter, they do not weigh much with us; since however we may venerate the names of Hippocrates, Aristotle, and Galen, we cannot forget that their writings abound with errors on subjects of natural philosophy, so that on these topics we are far from placing implicit confidence in them. Indeed, we apprehend that the bare perusal of the quotations, which Dr. Moseley makes from their

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writings,

writings, will afford sufficient proof of our position. The 2d part of the essay, however, demands more attention, in which the author adduces his own observations on the subject. He first relates his experience of the effects of the lunar influence in Jamaica, particularly in the year 1777; when, he says, they were more remarkable than in any other season: but we must confess that the observations appear to us extremely vague, and by no means impress us with a conviction of the truth which is attempted to be proved by them. Besides the influence of the moon on living bodies, as manifested in its effects on diseases, Dr. Moseley positively asserts that it has considerable power over dead matter. 'Between the tropics, (he says,) and in all hot climates, the moon has more corruptive power than in northern latitudes. Meat and fish there putrify in a few hours at all times; and almost immediately, when exposed to the moon. Sailors know this, and take precautions accordingly. A dead carcase exposed to the sun, and full moon, will in a day or two be converted into a living community of maggots.' For the proof of this fact, we should demand much stronger evidence than this vague reference to popular opinion.

Dr. Moseley afterward mentions some instances of the supposed influence of the moon over the diseases of this country: but here again we find little else than general assertions and unsatisfactory statements, where we should require an accurate and ample detail of facts. He next attempts to shew that old persons are much affected by the moon, and that they generally die either at the full or the change. In support of this opinion, he instances the hospital at Chelsea, and informs us that 'of twenty-four instances of deaths, of men between the age of 85 and 100, which have come under my knowledge within these few years, 13 died at the new moon; 7 at the full moon; 2 at the first quarter, and 2 at the last quarter.—Many of these events happened on the exact day of the lunar periods I mention; and none exceeded 48 hours from them.' The same coincidence appears to have been, in some degree, observed at the hospital for French protestants in St. Luke's. In the course of 12 years, 204 have died who were above the age of 70; of these, 74 died at the full moon, and 61 at the new moon. The remaining 69, 7 excepted, died at and within 48 hours of the quarters.'

These facts, we think, are deserving of some attention; yet, in their present state, they are too few and too inaccurate to establish the hypothesis in support of which they are adduced. Though Dr. Moseley's observations, then, do not prove the opinion which he labors to defend, they place it in such a point of view as causes us to wish that it may be more fully investigated.

Art. 21. *An Essay on Diet and Regimen*, as indispensable to the Recovery and Preservation of Firm Health, especially to the Indolent, Studious, Delicate, and Invalid; with appropriate Cases. By J. M. Adair, M.D., Member of the Royal Medical Society, and Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians of Edinburgh, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. 4s. Ridgway.

It is requested by this author that the preface may be perused with attention, before the reader enters on the essay itself; we have complied

complied with this notice, and have found in the preface some useful remarks: many of which, however, might perhaps have been more properly introduced into the body of the work. He attributes a large share of the disease, which prevails through so considerable a part of civilized society, to a defective education; 'by which the senses, appetites, and passions, gain a dangerous predominance over the reason and conscience.' He feels fully aware of the importance of his advice; for he assures us that it does not produce any good effect, 'it will not proceed from want of efficacy in the means, but want of obedience to the precepts.'

In a short introduction, Dr. Adair gives a general view of the animal œconomy, its various functions, and the peculiar temperaments or habits which different individuals exhibit: of these he enumerates five; the firm, the delicate or nervous, the sanguine, the phlegmatic, and the dry. The differences he seems to ascribe to an original variation in the bodily organization; and on different states of the nervous system he supposes 'the discrimination of *natural* character to depend.' The first chapter of the essay relates to 'foods and drinks;' in which we have some remarks first on the quantity, and 2dly on the various qualities of aliments, with their supposed effects on the digestive powers. The observations are, in general, such as every one will immediately subscribe: useful, but obvious. We may state, indeed, a few exceptions; such as his remark that 'animal jelly is difficult of digestion, and therefore improper for weak stomachs;' a notion that, we apprehend, is contradicted by every day's experience. He is extremely vehement against the use of tea, to which he attributes numerous and weighty evils; and he goes so far as to countenance the old opinion that green tea owes its color to verdigrise, an idea which may be disproved by any person who will subject it to the proper chemical tests. A few other inaccuracies of this kind might be pointed out. He warns his readers, with much energy, against the fatal practice of dram drinking; and declaims with great vehemence against the injurious effects of luxury and fashion.

Dr. Adair is a strenuous advocate for exercise; and he recommends to those whose employments or habits are sedentary what he calls the *lead-exercise*, which consists in rapidly moving balls composed of this metal. He has adopted this practice in his own person, and, as it appears, with the best effects.

'To this most salutary exercise, (he says,) with a gouty and rheumatic habit, subject also to imperfect digestion and frequent cholics, and having completely recovered from a slight paralytic stroke, and being now at the age of seventy-three, I am chiefly indebted for a pliancy of my legs and arms, rarely met with at my time of life; and I can assure every invalid, who shall use this exercise daily and steadily, that they may thereby strengthen a weak constitution, secure a more comfortable, though perhaps not a very firm state of health, and pass the latter years of life, less oppressed and distressed by those complaints which generally accompany old age.'

The great mortality of children, which amounts to nearly half of those that are born before they arrive at their 8th year, Dr. Adair



thinks may be much diminished by proper management. He accordingly lays down a number of regulations, many of which may appear unnecessarily minute, but which, on the whole, we consider as judicious. He speaks in the highest terms of the benefits likely to result from the vaccine inoculation, which he characterizes as 'undoubtedly a peculiar dispensation of the providence of our Almighty Creator.'—Some good observations occur under the head of cleanliness; and afterward a chapter 'on what is vulgarly called catching cold.' We do not perceive much novelty in his explanation of the manner in which this disease is produced, which he attributes to a check of the natural perspiration of the body; for the cure, he advises bathing the feet and legs in warm water, and to drink copiously of warm diluting fluids.

Chapters 10 and 11, 'on fashionable diseases,' and 'on lady and gentleman doctors,' are the most amusing and original parts of the essay. In the latter, the author forcibly points out the absurdity of trusting the practice of medicine to those whose education and pursuits have not immediately led to the study of this science, and instances the example of Boyle; who, notwithstanding his great store of information, and the enlargement of his understanding, was induced to place confidence in practices, some of which we now know to have been perfectly inefficacious, and others dangerous. Though we agree with Dr. Adair in the drift of his argument, it is but justice to Mr. Boyle to remark that, probably, there might have been found at that time contemporary physicians, of regular education, who would have been equally credulous.

On the whole, we can safely recommend this treatise to the attention of our readers; since it is evidently the work of a man of acuteness, though it indicates symptoms of "narrative old age." The style is lively, but incorrect; and it seems to be rather the production of a few leisure hours, than the result of much study and investigation.

#### EDUCATION.

Art. 22. *Mythological Amusement*, for Youth. In a Pocket-Case. 7s. 6d. Conder and Jones.

As some acquaintance with mythology is requisite for every reader, the plan here invented, with the accompaniment of a *tee totum*, may be found an useful mode of initiating children into a knowledge of the leading features of the subject. The map of mythological figures is a neat and pleasing performance, and it will most probably attract the young student's attention.

Art. 23. *The English Spelling Book*; with reading Lessons adapted to the Capacities of Children; in three Parts, calculated to advance the Learners by natural and easy Gradations; and to teach Orthography and Pronunciation together. By Lindley Murray, Author of "English Grammar adapted to the different Classes of Learners." 4th Edition, with Alterations and Additions. 12mo. 1s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co.

This little book is singularly well adapted to answer the purpose for which it is intended, and must be an acceptable present to the teachers

teachers of English Youth. Mr. Murray, who has already displayed great skill in the department of instruction, will acquire additional reputation from this manual, in which he endeavours to teach, first, an accurate pronunciation of elementary sounds; secondly, pronunciation, together with orthography; and thirdly, offers rules for spelling and pronunciation, with examples calculated to give the learner a radical knowledge and diversified views of the subject. The Rules are good; and the Lessons, Examples, and Exercises, are judiciously chosen.

Art. 24. *A First Book for Children.* By Lindley Murray. 4th Edition. 12mo. 6d. Longman and Co.

This very improved primer is intended to prepare the learner for the abovementioned Spelling-Book, and is particularly intended by the author to assist mothers, in the instruction of their young children.

Both these little volumes are intitled to our recommendation.

#### POETRY.

Art. 25. *Poems.* By Robertus. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Ebers. 1805.

Though we are far from entertaining the faintest wish to discourage youthful bards, yet, when young men publish amatory effusions, we must remind them that they are submitting their compositions to many readers who will not approve the unchastized language of passion, and that ardor of love which trespasses on decorum. Robertus says, "I never kiss and tell;" Love, however, has reason to accuse him of being the first of babblers: for what was done under the Rose, he proclaims at the Market Cross. When "graver years come sailing by," he will not approve such conduct, but may thank us for this gentle hint; though, while he is fascinated with Love and Wine, he will perhaps only laugh at our admonitions. We admit, however, that his verse is easy, and that his Anacreontics are sportive: while we are sorry to add that the few pieces, which are not inspired by Venus or Bacchus, are generally deficient in point.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 26. *A Practical Grammar of the Antient Gaelic, or the Language of the Isle of Mann, usually called Manks.* By the Rev. John Kelly, LL.D. Vicar of Ardleigh, and Rector of Copford, Essex. 4to. 6s. Boards. Bickerstaff.

For the motto of this volume, the author has adopted the well known conclusion of Horace's Epistle to Numicius, "*Si quid novisti rectius istis*," &c. We shall honestly confess that we know nothing of the Manks language, and therefore cannot suggest any improvements of or criticisms on Mr. Kelly's Grammar: yet we cannot engage that we shall adopt the alternative,—"*si non, his utere mecum*." If Mr. Kelly can promise any material circulation for our Review in the Isle of Man, we would endeavour to make ourselves conversant with its dialect: not that we should presume to expect sufficient encouragement

to print an impression in *Manks*. For such a purpose, applied to a much more important work, viz. as assisting in a translation of the Bible into the idiom of that island, this grammar was originally compiled; together with a dictionary of the language, the publication of which is also intimated.

Art. 27. *Four interesting Commercial Views*, which Masters of Academies, professed accountants, and Book keepers, never before offered, for the Protection of the Property of Co-partners, interested in every Branch of Emolument. The Facts attested by acknowledged mercantile Judges, herein named By P. A. Reina, an Italian Trader, &c Folio. 10s. 6d. half bound. Author, 6, Great Newport street, Long Acre.

It appears, by a kind of narrative attached to this work, that Mr. Reina has been unjustly deprived of his property. Of the transactions relative to this event, we know nothing more than the present statements offer to us: but we are sorry for his misfortunes, though we rejoice to find that they have not broken his spirit, nor impaired his activity. At the age of 80, he offers his assistance to merchants, to settle their accounts; and of this assistance, in that line, this work is a specimen. Merchants are much more able to judge of its merits than we are: for though we have bestowed some attention on it, we find that a degree and a kind of *practical* knowledge are requisite for the due appreciation of it, of which not a sample is to be discovered on the Parussian mount.

Art. 28. *Tracts on East India Affairs: viz. Collegium Bengalense*, A Latin Poem, with an English Translation; and a Dissertation on the best Means of civilizing the Subjects of the British Empire in India, and of diffusing the Light of the Christian Religion throughout the Eastern World. By George Chapman, LL. D. 12mo. 6d. Creech, Edinburgh.

What a blessing is poetry, if not to the world, at least to the bard himself! Dr. Chapman, in advanced age, has felt its beneficial influence; and he needs not regard the frowns of the fastidious, while he can say with Cicero, *Mibi quidam ita jucunda hujus libelli confectio fuit, ut (conscienti) omnes abstergerit senectutis molestias*. By a bold poetic fiction, he introduces the angel Gabriel speaking to one of the Eastern Sages on the Ganges, respecting the blessings which would result to him and his country from the approach of Gospel light; and who, after having inspired him with gratitude to heaven reminds him of his obligations to human agents. Dr C. has contrived to bring the King, Lord Melville, and Marquis Wellesley into one Latin line (though the last makes an awkward figure): but the angel Gabriel is sadly left in the lurch, or at least excluded from the pale of the Muses:

“*Tu Deum lauda, memorique mente  
Supplex; grates age deinde Regi  
GEORGIO, MELEVILIO, VELESLO,  
Mitisibus; atque*

“*Fertilem*

“*Fortibus, qui vos, domitis tyrannis,  
Moxque concordēs animis amicis,  
Pace, sacris, Legibus, Ædibusque,  
Amplificârunt.*”

Sic dixit Gabriel.\*

In the prose Dissertation, Dr. C. offers his opinion that, as the Roman Conquests prepared the way for the first promulgation of the Gospel, so our victories in India are preparatory to the triumphs of Christianity in that part of the globe. The British Clergy have now a wide field open before them ; and the enlightening and civilization of the Indians ought now, he thinks, to be an object of general solicitude. A division of our Indian possessions into Governments, Provinces, Counties, and even into Parishes, with the appointment of a Clergyman to every parish, is recommended. He goes still farther : he advises parochial schoolmasters, as in Scotland : but he does not calculate the number requisite for this establishment. The Doctor does not seem to consider the vastness of the population, nor the difficulties which obstruct the execution of his benevolent project.

Art. 29. *A Tour in Teesdale.* 12mo. 3s. Mawman.

The district here described certainly offers many objects which deserve the attention of the Tourist, and is not very generally known. Such information, therefore, as is imparted in this small tract, may be acceptable: but it is scanty, ill defined, and often conveyed in careless and inelegant language. The prefixed map may be more prized than the text which it illustrates.

Art. 30. *Narrative of a Voyage to Brazil*; terminating in the seizure of a British vessel, and the imprisonment of the Author and the Ship's Crew by the Portuguese. With General Sketches of the Country, its Natural Productions, Colonial Inhabitants, &c. and a Description of the City and Provinces of Saint Salvadore and Porto Seguro. To which are added, a correct Table of the Latitude and Longitude of the Ports on the coast of Brazil, Table of Exchange, &c. By Thomas Lindley. 8vo, pp. 2, 8. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1805.

While engaged in a mercantile adventure in the Southern Seas, Mr. Lindley was obliged by a want of repairs and by stress of weather to put into a Port of Brasil: where all trade is prohibited, except with the Mother country. Mr. Lindley, however, being at Porto Seguro, the Governor's son (in the presence of his father) proposed to him an exchange of commodities; and our countryman closed with the offer, and the terms were settled. The transaction coming to be generally known, the Governor and his son required it to be abandoned, but allowed Mr. Lindley, with their privy, to contract with another person on similar terms. It happened that the Governor requested that this business also might not be prosecuted; and it appeared in the event that he had sufficient reasons for so doing. On account of these dealings, into which he had been in the first instance enticed by the Governor's son, with the knowledge of the father, and which had been subsequently carried on with the consent of the same authoritative parties, Mr. Lindley

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and

and his wife were put under arrest, imprisoned for a considerable time, detained upwards of twelve months in Brasil, and at length only quitted it by making their escape. His crew were also imprisoned for a considerable part of the same period, but they were liberated previously to the departure of Mr. and Mrs. Lindley. The ship and cargo were confiscated; and the Portuguese government, on being addressed by the British ambassador, refused to make either restitution or compensation. In this harsh treatment on the part of an ally, has the predominant influence of France any share?

The volume principally consists of a narrative of the hardships suffered by Mr. and Mrs. Lindley during their detention, and of the particulars of their intercourse with the inhabitants. Their residence was at first at Porto Seguro, and latterly at St. Salvadore or Bahia; it lasted in the whole from July 1802 to August 1803. The author's sketches of these remote colonists are natural and interesting. The pursuits of these people appear to be childish and frivolous in the extreme, their manners incredibly coarse and offensive, their mode of living filthy and every way uncomfortable; they are the victims of an abject superstition, and their state of society is but little removed from barbarism; distinction of rank and situation is little regarded among them, and in their intercourse much of practical equality is discernible. The revolutionary principles of France have been disseminated, and are cherished among them. Mr. Lindley is of opinion that they are likely, at no distant period, to attempt the reduction of them into practice; since great disaffection, he says, prevails throughout the colonies towards the mother country; and they are sensible that the principal effects of their dependence consist of oppressive internal regulations, and injurious foreign restrictions.

The Jesuits had been long engaged in making collections, with the view to an account of this part of the world: but their voluminous papers have lain neglected for forty years, are covered with dust, and are rapidly decaying, no care being taken to preserve them. The jealous and barbarous government will permit neither native nor foreigner to examine these mouldering MSS; which in all probability would furnish most important additions to our stock of natural history. It is apparent from the incidental relations of the author, and the fact is indisputable, that the advancement of geographical and natural knowledge has suffered from the suppression of that singular society.

Savage life frequently exhibits singularities which are at once instructive and interesting: but this is rarely the case with a degraded civilized people; pictures of degeneracy excite only disgust. We can in no other way, than by the help of this reflection, account for our inability to cull a single extract from these pages, which would yield our readers either entertainment or useful knowledge. Yet the author writes with spirit, and is a man of observation. It appears to have been his object to interest the public and the government in his hard usage, perhaps from a hope of its leading in some mode to redress. He indeed tells his tale in a manner that strongly interests his readers in his favour; and few of them will rise from the perusal of it,

it, uninfluenced by a wish that this insult to a British subject may not be passed over without farther notice. The volume will be of real value to those who may have occasion to visit the south seas; and who may have the misfortune to be cast on the inhospitable shores which proved so fatal to the hopes and fortunes of the author.

Art. 31. *Observations on Charity Schools, Female Friendly Societies, and other Subjects connected with the Views of the Ladies Committee.* By Catharine Cappe. 8vo. pp. 200. 4s. 6d. Hatchard, &c.

We most cordially acquiesce in the principles advanced by this very intelligent and actively benevolent lady, respecting the poor; and we recommend her observations to the general attention of her sex. Her opinion of poor houses entirely accords with that which we have repeatedly given; which, though controverted by some gentlemen, is strengthened by every inquiry which we have made respecting these establishments; and those who are advocates for them, we believe, judge from particular instances, rather than from a general view of their actual state throughout the kingdom. Like the late Mr. Wood of Shrewsbury, they have exerted a kind superintendence over the poor houses in their own parish, and have been fathers to the poor; in consequence of which, much good has been effected, and many of the evils naturally consequent on congregating various classes of indigence under one roof have been prevented from displaying themselves, to the extent which they otherwise would have reached. What, however, is the case with poor houses in general; where the wretched and the profligate are mixed together, and where the superintendence is left to a mercenary Master who farms them, and to annual overseers, to whom the office is a burden, who are unqualified for it, and altogether insensible of its importance? We fear that the majority of them are seminaries and receptacles for vice; and necessary as some such establishments may be under the present circumstances of the times, in which the price of labour is not apportioned to the wants of the poor, we deem it a matter of great national importance to take measures for preventing their increase, and for subjecting them to proper regulations.

In the present pamphlet, Mrs. Cappe has proposed two questions respecting the rising generation, which merit the most serious discussion: viz. 'Ought young children, who have devolved on a parish, to be sent to the poor house? Ought female children, when of a suitable age, to be bound apprentices for their labour?' After the most attentive inquiry, she determines both these questions in the negative. Since these seminaries afford dangerous companions for infancy, she recommends that the old and the young should not be mixed together, but that a detached building (or at least a separate part of every poor house, having no communication with the rest.) should be allotted for the reception of the young, and that they should be placed under a distinct charity school management. Though, however, she advises this plan to prevent the contamination of profligate example, she is persuaded that family education is preferable to this sort of education *en masse*; and that 'where parents are sober, honest, and industrious, notwithstanding they may be poor, it would be most for the advantage and happiness of all parties that the Female part of their little

little family should not be taken from them to be educated in a charity school.' With Mr. Malthus, she thinks that "it is a fortunate circumstance for this country that a spirit of independence still remains among its peasantry;" and she exerts herself in her province as a Lady, to promote the establishment of Female Friendly Societies, by which the poor may be encouraged to depend on themselves, and to secure help in sickness and old age, without being forced to apply to the parish. Having taken an active part in establishing and superintending several Societies of this kind, her hints and remarks are those of experience; and the long accounts, which are subjoined, will be of signal use to all who wish to establish similar institutions.

Lamentable facts induce Mrs. Cappe to decide against the practice of apprenticing young females from charity schools. She very justly remarks that boys and girls are not alike circumstanced in these apprenticeships:

'A boy, (she says,) placed out to learn a trade, is considered as being upon some sort of equality with his Master; the Girl, as his slave. The Boy is hereafter to fill a similar station, the Girl, on the contrary, one that is esteemed altogether degrading; he is to learn a trade, considered, by his Master at least, as highly respectable; she is taught nothing, but to labor, often beyond her strength, in the most menial occupations, and to tremble at the frown of her tyrant. Should a Boy, unhappily, be seduced into vice, of which however, generally speaking, there is not equal danger, he may reform, or at least the door is still open to reformation, for he does not thereby lose, what may be called his cast; but if a Girl is seduced, where is she to pause? Is she not generally compelled to travel onward in the same downward road, corrupted, and corrupting, till at length, enfeebled by disease, and worn out by accumulated wretchedness, she sinks, prematurely, into an unhallowed grave!'

We cannot detail the different plans here given for the several Female Friendly Societies under the superintendence of the Ladies' Committee, nor instance Mrs. Cappe's ability as a woman of business: but whoever reads her pamphlet will see that she is capable of instructing her sex, and we wish that female servants would listen to her exhortations on the subject of dress:

'Are young Women, Servants, and others, exhorted to dress suitably to their station? Two very powerful principles, the love of admiration, and the desire of bettering our condition, mistaken as they generally are in the means they suggest, will represent the kind advice as the effect of prejudice, severity and rigor. Could these deluded young persons be convinced, that admiration, unaccompanied by respect, is a bait for their destruction, and that without a strict regard to decency and propriety, respect is unattainable, these principles might perhaps be enlisted on the other side. If they flatter themselves, that admiration thus excited may lead to a superior marriage, they might be assured, that the blanks to the prizes are much more, than as ten thousand to one; and that the prize if obtained would rarely conduce to their happiness; whereas, their loss on the contrary is certain, and inexpressibly great. They will lose the esteem and patronage of the wise and prudent; they will deprive themselves

of the means of obtaining and securing a comfortable future independence; they will contract habits that are altogether ruinous; they will act in express disobedience to an apostolic command; and the sober, virtuous, industrious youth, will be deterred from thinking of them.

In conclusion, Mrs. C. ventures to give advice respecting those incorrigible Beings, the London footmen: but she has here stepped out of her Lady's province, with very little prospect of success.

## POLITICS.

Art. 32. *Considerations arising from the Debate in Parliament on the Petition of the Irish Catholics* By Sir John Throckmorton, Bart. 8vo. pp. 165. 3s 6d. Budd. 8p6.

This performance has been drawn up with great ability, and it is impossible to applaud too highly the fairness and temper displayed in it throughout. The only serious difficulties, which were stated in the course of the Parliamentary discussion, are here so fairly met, and so materially obviated, that we must recommend the pamphlet to general perusal. We can only specify one or two remarks.

In order to remove jealousies, the author proposes that the king should have the nomination of Catholic Bishops, the latter applying to Rome for canonical confirmation on institution. The oath of fealty to the Pope, though a mere matter of form, he would abolish; and he has no doubt that to this the consent of the Roman see might be obtained. The Diocesan, we are told, at present appoints the parochial clergy; which would be otherwise ordered, if it were wished by government. It is here strongly recommended to our rulers to provide the Parish priests with moderate salaries. Sir John then adds;

‘The nomination of the bishops and the appointment of the parochial clergy being regulated, the next measure, I conceive, must be, first to settle in what manner external discipline, in holding any courts and the celebration of marriages, shall be administered; and then, which is most important, distinctly to define, through what channel communications with the Roman see shall be permitted. This channel must be public, let us say, one of the offices of government. Much trouble needs not be apprehended; for the communications would not be frequent; but when they happened, the subject or instrument should be open for inspection, as likewise any brief, or rescript or monition, or dispensation, or whatever answer, might be transmitted in return.

‘With what facility might such regulations be made, and when made, and adhered to, what cause could there any longer be for suspicions, and for any fear of this foreign sovereignty? And the Irish prelacy, I flatter myself, if they have not already taken the subject into consideration, will delay no longer doing it, and will be ready, before Parliament shall again resume the subject, to lay before government a detailed plan of regulations. The redress of grievances seems to be in their own hands.’

With all those who know the worthy Baronet, whether personally or by character, the following declaration will have its due weight:



'I am disposed, in conversing with the common herd of men, to make allowance for prejudices of education; but not when I am supposed to address legislators and ministers of state. If the minds of these men have retained any bias, which sound sense and enlarged views have not given, they should return into the mass of society, and grovel there. Mischief, or, at best, an absence of all good, must be the necessary consequence, in every important measure, of their plans and counsels. It cannot be thought, descended as I am from Catholic ancestors, and educated in that religion, that I should not know, what are the real principles of its professors, and whether those principles are adverse to, or can ally with, all the duties of a loyal subject. Had I perceived them to be adverse, I trust that I shall be believed when I say, that long ago I should have ceased to be a Catholic, under the evident conviction, that a system of faith which forbade me to "give to Cæsar what was due to Cæsar," must be fundamentally erroneous.'

We believe that this assertion would hold true with regard to all persons of consideration in the same communion.

In one matter only discussed in this work, do we differ from the amiable and able author;—we do not desire an union of churches. If we cannot deem this eligible, we shall consider every catholic, who is not inferior in piety and worth to his protestant brother, as equally the favourite of heaven, and equally to be loved and esteemed by us; and Sir J Throckmorton does not wish more anxiously than we do, for the arrival of that time in which all civil disqualifications on account of religion shall be for ever abolished, and all the subjects of the empire, like the children of one great family, shall be admitted to the same privileges and immunities.

Art. 33. *An Inquiry into the State of the Nation at the Commencement of the Present Administration.* 8vo. pp. 219. 5s. Longman and Co. 1826.

Though many of the statements of this bulky pamphlet command our assent, several conclusions are drawn by the author which we cannot admit; and with respect to those which we deem well founded, we differ from him on some of the particulars which he lays down, whether introduced collaterally, or as forming the basis on which he grounds his argument. In so vast a field as that which he has taken, it would carry us far beyond our limits to controvert and qualify all that seems to us to require such treatment. We believe that we shall deal most fairly with the writer, and best accord with the wishes of our readers, if we lay before them a summary of the matters discussed in these pages, and leave them to add their own comments.

The author observes that, for some time past, it has been the practice of the House of Commons, in all important junctures, to institute what is called an Inquiry into the state of the nation. It was to be expected, he intimates, that on the occasion of the late political changes, this investigation would have been established; but it did not take place: and the object of this pamphlet is stated, in very becoming terms, to be that of supplying this omission.—It is described as a 'disquisition which may be arranged under three heads,—as it relates to our foreign relations, our domestic economy, and our colonial affairs.'

*fairs* : but in the arrangement which the author has chosen to follow, our colonial affairs are considered in the second place, and our domestic economy in the last.

A large and most important part of this publication treats of the formation of what has been called the third coalition, its effects, and matters collateral to it ; his reprobation of which, in whole and in part, the writer is not studious either to conceal or to convey in measured terms. We are also favoured with his sentiments on the subject of the belligerent right claimed in the rule of the war 1756, — which is certainly treated by him in a new and unusual manner. His observations on our domestic economy are very concise, and contain little that we can either commend or censure.

As preliminary to the consideration of our foreign relations, it is remarked that, though the late British government promised in 1803 to apply to Russia to mediate in our differences with France ; and though again in 1805, in answer to the overtures of Bonaparte, it engaged to consult the same power on the subject ; it does not appear from the papers laid before Parliament that any such step was ever taken. This is a serious charge ; and if there be any foundation for it, we doubt not that the parties will be called to answer it when the subject comes to be discussed.

‘ The late league,’ it is contended, ‘ had no precise or definite objects in view.’ According to this politician, if the allies were contented with merely seeing the French troops withdrawn from Holland, Switzerland, and Italy, they would gain little ; since France, in case of a war, would be able without difficulty to replace them in their former stations ; and if it were the aim of the confederates to restore them to absolute independence, this could only have been effected by the entire conquest of France, — an achievement completely out of their power. He also criticizes the order pursued in the negotiation. Austria, he thinks, ought to have been first considered, Prussia next, and Russia and Sweden should not have been consulted till the consent of the two former had been obtained. He complains of the exclusion of the British ambassador at Vienna from the conferences there held between the Russian and Austrian ministers, respecting the objects of the league ; and he ascribes to this disrespect shewn to Great Britain, and the consequent want of her advice in forming the plan of operations, the errors which occasioned its utter and ignominious failure. He very severely censures the late ministers for their tardy movements, and for the disposal which they at last made of the British forces. They ought, he thinks, instead of sending troops to Hanover and Naples, to have attempted a landing in Holland or in the north of France, and to have reinforced the Archduke in Italy.

Our *brother Reviewer* next calls us to reflect on the consequences of a confederacy which he asserts to have been as premature and ill concerted, as it has proved in the event unsuccessful. It has insured to our enemy the permanent dependence of the conquered countries, and the absolute submission of his subjects ; it has rendered the invasion of this island a less hazardous if not a more successful experiment ; and owing to the change in Bonaparte’s situation, which the failure of the late attempts against him has produced, he has nothing to fear from his subjects, or from foreign states, if he should be foiled in an expedition

expedition against England. The writer views the war, into which we have entered with Spain, as not less impolitic than unjust. He draws a strong picture of the power of the enemy, and represents the situation of the continent as precluding every hope of reducing it in any degree. His sketch of our situation is indeed extremely gloomy. If we do not combat his facts, however, nor question a great number of his observations as they relate to the consequences of recent events, we are of opinion that he has omitted numerous considerations, which render the balance between us and our enemy less uneven than he describes it. On the question of neutral rights, we have had more than one occasion lately to state our sentiments; and nothing that we find in these pages has induced us to change our opinion.

This investigator is not less sanguine in his hopes respecting the present ministers, than he is severe in his animadversions on their predecessors. He expresses his confidence that they will employ more competent ambassadors at foreign courts; that they will change our system in the West and East Indies; that they will reform our military plans; and that they will attend to the amelioration of Ireland.

*Art. 34. The War as it is, and the War as it should be: an Address to the United Administration, urging the Necessity of a New Species of Warfare, and a New Basis of a Treaty of Peace. By a true Englishman. 8vo: 1s. 6d. Jordan and Maxwell. 1806.*

"Peace," says Milton, "has its victories;" and peace may have its hostilities, not less fatal than actual war. We are in a predicament which requires us to look to other circumstances than merely the sheathing of the sword. If peace be made, it should include all the terms which actual friendship between nations implies; for unless this point be obtained, it cannot be of long duration. The writer of the present pamphlet enforces the importance of this principle; and he justly contends that, 'if France expects to be admitted to the participation of amicable privileges, in consequence of the peace into which she enters with us, we have a right to expect a participation of corresponding privileges, in consequence of the peace into which we enter with her.' Should the Enemy reject this proposal, and determine on perpetual warfare against our commerce and manufactures, the author recommends the adoption of a new species of warfare, in order to force him into equitable terms. Ministers are advised, rejecting the former public code, to refuse the privilege hitherto allowed to Neutral Flags, to repress the 'war in disguise' which they are prosecuting, to blockade the enemy's ports, and, copying Bonaparte's example, to erect some new Empires, and to enter into a competition with him 'in the trade of king making'. It is strongly urged to form a new kingdom of Bourbon for Louis xviii. in South America; to slice off an extensive district from Spanish America for the family of Portugal, should they be driven out of Europe; to appropriate to our own use the remainder of the Spanish Provinces in the New World; to give the Cape of Good Hope to the Emperor of Russia, and the island of Martinique to the King of Sweden; to conquer Corsica, Minorca, Majora, and Ivica, for the King of Sardinia; to recompense the King of Naples for his lost territories in Europe, by St. Domingo, Guadaloupe, &c; and to force Bonaparte to acknowledge these empires which we shall have created, in return for our acknowledgement of the

the new states which he has erected on the Continent. In short, this writer thinks that the only way of "conquering a peace" is to prosecute the war on the same principle with the enemy. Much of his plan must be considered as Utopian, and part of it as dangerous, particularly his granting the Cape to Russia and erecting a Kingdom in the West Indies. An indemnification for the Bourbons is a liberal project: but it is not very practicable in the present state of our finances; and ought not Bonaparte to be required in justice to perform this business? A wide field for new war is here traced out, and, in establishing these new Kingdoms, we are to be above entering into pounds, shillings, and pence calculations. This scheme displays something of bluster: but in other respects the True Englishman's remarks are not unworthy of attention.

THANKSGIVING SERMON, Dec. 5, 1805.

Art. 35. *The true Dependence and Duty of Man*,—preached at the Parish Church of St. Andrew, Norwich. By the Rev. Lancaster Adkin, M.A. 8vo. 1s. Ostell.

On the composition of this discourse we can bestow no praise. Various texts of Scripture are strung together without arrangement, and the doctrine (if we can collect it from a chaos of words,) is the very extravagance of piety. The preacher's language is—"Kiss the Son, lest he be angry—blessed are all they that put their trust in him."—"Away then, in the name of God, with your unnecessary Sunday-drills" We shall not here discuss the propriety of Sunday-drills, but shall merely observe that "though safety is of the Lord," yet "the horse must be prepared against the day of battle," and that extraordinary emergencies demand extraordinary efforts. *Nelson* is introduced, *heart and shoulders*, as we may say, just like the Sunday drill; and, we may venture to add, when no man expected him. *Hear! Hear!* "Let then your conversation be in heaven, that we may meet with there, I trust, our glorious countrymen, whose meditation, while on earth, was on celestial joys, and whose soul, he having crushed the tyrant's power, flew SWIFTLY up to heaven to thank his God."

A legion of poets have endeavoured to say fine things of our immortal Hero, but at this rate the Parsons will beat them out of the pit.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 36. Preached, May 9th, 1805, in the Parish-church of St. Mary, Reading, at the Visitation of the Rev. the Archdeacon of Berks. By the Rev. Arthur Onslow, D.D. Dean of Worcester and Archdeacon of Berks. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Of the sentiments which are inculcated in this sermon, some judgment may be formed from the following quotation—Dr. O. observes that "The first act of the goodness of God, in the execution of his purpose of election with regard to the Gentile world, was to bring them into the light and privileges of the gospel, thus placing them in a capacity for salvation, and in a condition of faithfully serving God for the time to come, not predestinated, according to the sense, with which some would distort this passage.—They were *ἐν τῷ κόσμῳ ἐν χάριτι ἀγαπῶντος*, in the right order to eternal life. These spiritual privileges did not convey an unconditional state of favour and happiness, but are stated by the Apostle to be intended

as motives only to righteousness, and the parent and principle of future obedience to the rule of God's commandments. For as the privileges of the Jewish dispensation, were given to all those, who were members of that constitution, and they were all called the nation and the people and the heritage of God; so all Christians are included by the apostle in the number of the elect saved and chosen. The apostle is to be considered as applying these terms to collective bodies of men, with respect to their admission into the kingdom of God, as members of the church of Christ, and not to particular persons, so as to enable them to ascertain even in this life the certainty of their everlasting salvation in the world to come.'

If these advantages have their effect, and are productive of obedience to the will of God, then all is right. In such a strain the Doctor reasons; and so far as respects the meaning of Scripture, his conclusions appear to be just.—The sermon may be perused with advantage.

Art. 37. *The Overflowings of Ungodliness*, a Sermon on the Times, preached at St. James's Church, Bath, Jan. 19, 1806. By the Rev. Richard Warner. 8vo. 1s. Cuthell and Co.

So offensive to a few individuals, we learn, were the representations given in this discourse, that they left the church during its delivery. Undaunted, however, by this mode of expressing disapprobation, Mr. W. maintains before the public the principles which he had asserted in the pulpit; and if boldly to remonstrate against fashionable and crying vices be the duty of a Christian minister, we see nothing in his sermon of which he needs to be ashamed.—Though preached for the benefit of a public charity, his sermon seems rather calculated for a fast-day; and he judiciously considers all our appearances of prosperity as fallacious, while we remain irreligious and immoral.

#### CORRESPONDENCE.

Anonymous railing, like that of one of a *Society of Old Clergymen*, cannot possibly have any weight with us. If we find that the writer is 'a real friend to religion and virtue', and that the object of his animadversion is their foe, we shall act as the case requires and as our consciences dictate.

G. W. may be assured that he has no reason for apprehension on the subject of his letter. Where we know, or even suspect, that personal feelings are likely either to provoke unjust hostility or to induce "praise undeserved", it is our rule never to intrust a decision.

R. Z. will soon see the object of his inquiry duly noticed.

The APPENDIX to this Volume of the M. R., containing various articles of FOREIGN LITERATURE, will be published with the Review for May, on the 1st of June.

¶ In the Review for March, p. 260. l. 22. for '*Calasio*,' r. *Calasio*.—p. 269. l. 7. after '*age*,' insert *of*.—p. 311. l. 7. for '*dialection*,' r. *dialectician*.—p. 335. l. 27. for '*apprehended*,' r. *apprehend*.



# A P P E N D I X

## TO THE

### FORTY-NINTH VOLUME

#### OF THE

## M O N T H L Y   R E V I E W

### E N L A R G E D.

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#### FOREIGN LITERATURE.

**ART. I.** *Histoire des Guerres des Gaulois et des Français en Italie ; &c. i. e.* A History of the Wars of the Gauls and French in Italy ; with a Sketch of the Civil and Military Events which accompanied them, and their Influence on the Civilization and Progress of the human Mind : from Bellocese to the Death of Louis XII. by the Ex-Adjut. Gen. AUGUSTUS JUBÉ, Tribune ; and from Louis XII. to the Treaty of Amiens, by JOSEPH SERVAN, General of Division. Dedicated to his Majesty the Emperor. 8vo. 5 Vols. in 7. and Folio Atlas of Maps. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5l. 5s. sewed.

**H**ISTORY in all its branches will ever be an interesting study ; and in times in which military power bears almost universal sway, the "*History of Blood*" must be particularly worthy of our attention. In such a point of view, heightened by reference to the nation which at this moment has so much ascendancy over the destinies of Europe, the present work will attract a considerable share of our notice.

The first volume alone comprizes the labours of M. JUBÉ ; and yet the view which he takes of the long and arduous struggle maintained by the Gauls with the masters of the world is comprehensive, satisfactory, and striking. Presented as it is here apart, it wears almost an air of novelty, and places in a more clear light the vast weight of this people in the political scale of the time ; while it fully illustrates the observation, "that with other nations the Romans had fought for glory, but with the Gauls for existence." Many traits of in-

tellectual deficiency are certainly here presented, a remarkable instance of which has been pointed out by *Montesquieu* :<sup>\*</sup> but it would lead us from our object to examine whether this was owing to inferior natural ability, or to the absence of all mental culture. Of a physical inferiority which we have heard has been lately ascribed to this antient people, the very reverse of all proof is to be found in the accounts which are collected together from the old authorities.

The author makes these remarks, when speaking of the sixth century before the christian æra :

‘ The country of the Gauls, covered at this time with deep mounds and immense forests, which were the objects of religious veneration, was inhabited by numerous tribes, all differing among themselves in forms of government, and which never met but in order to make war on each other. Historians, however, ascribe to them the same origin, and represent them all as characterized by similar manners, and by that fierce intrepidity which distinguished all the Celts. Two orders of men alone enjoyed consideration among them ; the Druids and the Nobles : to the first were entrusted exclusively the superintendence of public worship, the education of youth, and the direction of public and private affairs. The authority of their sovereign Pontiff was absolute. The Druids never went to war, and were exempt from every species of taxation and servitude.

‘ This superstitious people daily sacrificed human victims. Husbands and fathers had the power of life and death over their wives and children, and they frequently exercised their right with regard to the former. This nation, nearly in the pastoral state, addicted to arms and carnage, ignorant of the resources of commerce, despising the labours of agriculture, and acknowledging no law but that of the sword, was in the practice of sending from its territories the excess of its population, in order to seize on lands which others had brought into cultivation.

‘ In the reign of the aged *Ambigat*, one of the most powerful chiefs of Gaul, two expeditions issued from the banks of the Loire, under the nephews of that prince. *Ligovese* led one towards Germany across the antient Hercinian wood, of which the present Black Forest is but a very small portion ; while *Belovese*, at the head of the other detachment, crossed the Alps, invaded the territories of the Umbrians, the fertile plains watered by the Po and the Adige, where he built Milan, and laid the foundations of a power that was soon to become formidable.

‘ The beauty of the country, the culture of the olive and the vine which was at that time unknown to the Gauls, and their successes in resisting the attacks made on them by their neighbours, all united to fix this people in the rich territory which the Romans, in order to distinguish it from the larger Gaul, called Cisalpine Gaul, and which name it retained until Augustus made a new division of Italy.

\* *Considerations sur les Causes de la Grandeur des Romains*, &c. cap. iv.

‘ Several

‘ Several ages before, some Gauls had possessed themselves of Liguria, which they continued to hold, while other countries of Italy became the prey of warlike invaders. A number of foreign tribes occupied the several divisions which constituted Latium. Various tribes, all Greeks, had shared among themselves the South of Italy. Each colony had imported its customs and manners, its religious worship, its arts, and its language; and it was easy to trace the descent of each people, whether Grecian, Lydian, or Celtic.

‘ The envied lot and the success of the Gauls, who had settled in the Cisalpine territory, soon drew others into the same country. A people of Gaul possessed themselves of Mantua and Carniola, and of what has been since called the *terra firma* of Venice. Another colony settled on the right bank near the mouth of the Po, between Ravenna and Bologna.—Such was the origin of the numerous cities which flourish to this day in Northern Italy.’

This history commences with the invasion of Italy, which was commenced at the instance of Aruns, to whom the magistrates of Clusium had refused to render justice, and which terminated in the memorable capture of Rome by Brennus, but which in the end proved to be of little prejudice to that power. Alive to the honour of the antient Gauls, the author comments on the different accounts given by Polybius and Livy, respecting the events which happened during their retreat from the Roman Capital; and it must be admitted that his conclusions are plausible :

‘ Rome, regenerated as it were from its ashes, continued to maintain its struggles with its warlike neighbours, turned its attention to maritime strength, and founded a colony in Sardinia; though she was frequently distracted by internal anarchy, yet, owing to the vigour of her constitution, she went on increasing in power. The Gauls, on the contrary, distracted by their civil wars, which were ever recurring, prepared with their own hands the misfortunes, the ruin, and the slavery of their country.

‘ This restless people, ignorant of the mode of waging effective war, yet incapable of enjoying the sweets of peace, who left the care of cultivating their land to women and old men, and who had slaves to perform the labour; who despised the arts, because they were entire strangers to them, and who were greedy of gold; breathed nothing but battles and carnage. A courage which might be called fury, a blind presumption, and a strange rapacity, characterized the Gauls of that period; who did not appear to have acquired any experience in the art of war, though continually engaged in combats among themselves, and with their neighbours. The seeds of their ruin were set in the division of their colonies into small tribes; they were insulated, jealous of each other, and incapable of such union as that of which the Achæans afterward supplied a model, and which we have seen copied with the best effect by warlike, agricultural, and commercial nations.



‘Marseilles, decided by the recollection of its origin, and by its views of aggrandisement, seconded the policy of the Roman Senate. It even gave part of its wealth to assist Rome in discharging the sum due to the Gauls for its ransom, and entered into a treaty with that power which proved the fore-runner of its subjugation.’

It is justly observed by M. JUBÉ, that we may discern the absence of every thing like policy in the proceedings of the Gauls. He takes notice that, while the Romans were engaged in a dangerous war with Pyrrhus, and in another with the Carthaginians, the Gauls never stirred; they paid no attention to the repulses which their proud enemy experienced during these arduous struggles, and never made the least attempt to profit by them:

‘It was,’ he remarks, ‘with Rome *triumphant*, and when about to shut the Temple of Janus for the first time since Numa, that they waged war. Rome at this time was as skilful in conducting intrigues as she was formidable in the field; she knew how to sow dissensions among her enemies, and to foster quarrels among them which answered her views. The most violent discord arose between the Boii and the Transalpine Gauls, as they were approaching to Arezzo; they rose on their commanders Atés and Galatus; sacrificed them with their own hands; and, drawn up in order of battle, massacred one another. Yet we find that they were sensible of insults, and capable at times of concerting vigorous measures in order to avenge them.

‘When the Decemvirs had the barbarity to bury alive a Gaul and a Greek of each sex, by way of ironically fulfilling a prediction found in the Sibylline books, which stated that Greeks and Gauls would take possession of Rome, the Gauls were roused, and became aware when it was too late of the necessity of union. The Boii and the Insubres were not contented to unite themselves to the Senones, but they sent to the people of the larger Gaul, and to the Gesates who inhabited the countries between the Rhone, and the Alps, urgently pressing them to join with them as a common cause. Presents, promises, exhortations, all expedients were adopted; the colossal power of the Romans, their immense riches, and their multiplied defeats by the antient Gauls, were all represented: “Remember (said they) that our common ancestors took Rome at the first onset, held it for seven months, and that they restored it not only without compulsion, but received the acknowledgements of the Romans for so doing, and safely returned into their own country with a large booty.”—This harangue produced its effect; and never, says Polybius, was there seen to proceed from these provinces a more numerous army, and composed of more ardent and warlike soldiers. They all swore not to lay down their arms till they had taken the capitol; and they made a vow to consecrate the weapons and spoils of the enemy to their God Mars, whom they worshipped under the emblem of a naked sword.’

The

The classical reader knows with what terror these preparations were contemplated in Rome, and the extraordinary measures that were taken to meet the storm. The successes of the barbarous confederates, however, occasioned the failure of their plan. When they had amassed an immense booty, they became solely engrossed by that consideration, forgot Rome and the Capitol, and took the road back to their own country. In their march, chance conducted them into a spot which lay between two Roman armies; that of Emilius whom they had defeated, but who still watched their retreat, and that of Attilius, who, on his return from Pisa to Rome, unexpectedly met with the victorious Gauls laden with their plunder. In this disadvantageous situation, they made a most obstinate resistance, but in vain; and forty thousand slain testified the victory of the Romans. This was the first of a succession of defeats which finally secured to the victors the whole Gallic territory, from the Alps to the Ionian Sea; and this courageous people was constrained to receive Roman colonies into Placentia and Cremona, on both the banks of the Po, and into other cities of that fine country.

Thus, as we are here reminded, the unvaried strict discipline of the legions, and the crafty policy of the Senate, triumphed over the blind valour and the ill-combined efforts of the Cisalpine Gauls. The intestine divisions among that people, the prejudices which arrested their progress in the art of war, while that science had reached such perfection among the Greeks and Romans, and the tragical vexations which they had caused to all people to whom they had declared themselves either enemies or allies, occasioned their overthrow from the North of Italy, and their downfall soon afterward in Thrace and Gallo-Grecia.

Ever blind to their true interests, they took no advantage of the subsequent troubles, contentions, and wars, in which the Romans were engaged, and which might have afforded them opportunities for recovering their liberty: but they appeared as if they designedly chose those moments for war in which their powerful enemy could employ its whole force against them. Even after the death of Cæsar, had they laid aside their jealousies, their inconstancy, their mutual hatred, and their eternal dissensions, it was not too late to have shaken off their dependance on Rome: but these vices were deeply rooted in their nature, and shewed themselves even in their camps; and Cæsar and Augustus dextrously turned them to account; the one in order to subdue them, the other in order to disarm and corrupt them.

‘ Under the reign of Augustus, (M. Juvén observes,) the sciences and the arts covered with flowers the chains of the people. Posterity still admires the fine writers, historians, poets, and philosophers, who, creating to themselves a kind of new country, sought in the pursuit of the arts to forget the tyranny under which they lived. The Gauls saw with indifference the sombre Tiberius succeed to Augustus: but they bore with impatience the increase of the public burthens, and the pride and cruelty of the magistrates deputed by Rome to tyrannize over them. Two distinguished chiefs, Florus and Sacrovise, attempted the deliverance of their country, but failed in this noble enterprize, which they disdained to survive. The generous Julius Vindex experienced the same fate. The atrocities committed in Gaul by the cruel Generals of Vitellius occasioned the brave resistance made by Claudius Civilis: but, after two campaigns, full of military exploits and splendid feats, jealousy again divided the Gauls, and constrained Civilis to receive peace from the hands of Vespasian. This brilliant epoch, which bears the date of the year 70 of our æra, having past, the bravery of the Gauls was in future only displayed under the Roman eagles, which one faction opposed to the other.

‘ In the subsequent period, the intrigues of a debased senate, and the caprices of an uncontrolled soldiery, had successively raised and deposed twenty seven emperors; the greater number of them totally unqualified for the high trust with which they were invested. Of sixty three emperors, who formed the succession from Julius Cæsar to the division of the empire into eastern and western, forty-seven underwent a violent death, the greater number receiving it from their own guards.

‘ Early in the fifth century of our æra, the Franks established themselves in the North of Gaul, and the Burgundians in the East, and had seized the mountains of Helvetia and the territory of the Sequani. Aëtius, General of Valentinian, seconded by the Gauls, balanced the successes of the Franks, and put a stop to the progress of Attila and his Huns.—Aëtius was poinarded by the chief of that empire whose tottering columns he supported. Universal confusion followed. At this Epoch, the face of the world assumed a different appearance; all was changed, government, laws, manners, religion and language. The names of provinces, rivers, and seas, were altered; and “ even those of men, who (as Machiavel observes,) came to be called Peter and Matthew, instead of Cæsar and Pompey.”

‘ Gaul, having for a long period struggled with its destinies, reduced under a rapid succession of weak emperors to a few remains of Roman provinces, and desolated by the officers of the exchequer, by war, and by intestine discord, had at last nothing but its name to lose, when it fell entire into the hands of the barbarians. Thus disappeared the ever memorable name of Gauls. For four hundred years, they had with singular bravery resisted the chains which Rome laboured to fix on them. In the two ages preceding, they had threatened the very existence of Rome itself: but the plan, constantly followed by the crafty policy of the future Mistress of the World, obtained a triumph which she sought in vain to secure by arms: she profited by the divisions which never ceased to prevail among

among the Gauls, who may be said to have been without chiefs, because they professed to have a great number of them; who disdained discipline, because they deemed it useless where bravery existed; who neglected tactics, and never advanced in the knowledge of arms, because it is science alone that can profit by the lessons of experience, and enlightened valour can only belong to civilized nations. The Romans, deriving their name from a great and celebrated city, transmitted it to the barbarians who enslaved them, and who became possessed of their country; and the Gauls were not long in confounding themselves with the people who rescued them from the intolerable yoke of Rome.'

When proceeding in what may be regarded as modern history, the author seizes many traits which agreeably arrest the attention of the reader, and which add greatly to the interest of the work.—Referring to the seventh century, he remarks:

'The commerce to which the diplomatic intercourse with Constantinople gave rise, and the spoils which the French armies brought with them from Italy, diffused luxury and magnificence around the throne of France. Clothair possessed a seat of massive gold; and his son Dagobert sat on a throne of the same metal enriched with precious stones, the work of that Eloi who was celebrated for his talents in jewellery; who was afterward treasurer to the king, Bishop of Noyon, and whose name has found a place in the legend of Saints, from gratitude for the rich presents which, after the example of his master, he made to the church. Samon, a French merchant, as a reward for his courage and his wisdom, was invited to mount the throne of the Sclavonians, whom he governed with glory for the space of thirty-five years.

'Friesland at this time furnished the French with stuffs and furs; England, with corn, iron, wax, and dogs for the chase; Africa and the East supplied them with corn, oil, and the paper of Egypt, which was alone used in France till the eleventh century.

'To be always zealous for religion, to honour the bishops as his fathers, to love the people as his children, to govern with gentleness, without ever relaxing in matters of justice, to reward merit, to be circumspect in the choice of his ministers, but, having once appointed them, never without serious cause to deprive them of their dignities;—this was the code which Charlemagne dictated publicly to his son, and these were the sage conditions which he imposed on him. An unmeasurable ambition alone stained the memory of this great monarch; and it is to this ambition, and the manners of his age, that we are to ascribe the bloody expeditions which he undertook and authorized. He might be charged with troubling himself too much about theology: but courage, patience, intrepidity, a love of the arts, and of justice, all these united in him, and have secured to him the regard of posterity. If the age in which he lived be considered, and the gratuities which he heaped on the clergy, we shall easily conceive the reasons which induced the church to reckon

him among the number of the Saints, and the monkish historians to proclaim him a great man.'

Those periods of history, in which have arisen circumstances that have had a permanent influence on society, claim particular attention, though not signalized by the existence of heroes, or the display of great exploits.

'Charles, known in history by the epithet of the Bald, was as weak as he was vain, and had more daring than perseverance; he allowed the uniformly growing claims of the Holy See to acquire new vigour, while serious blows were inflicted on the authority of his crown by the hereditary succession which was establishing itself in titles and dignities. The predecessor of the reigning Pope had, at his election, dared to dispense with the suffrages of the Emperor's commissioners, till then deemed necessary to render the proceeding valid. John VIII, thirteen years later, advanced opposite pretensions; and he insisted that the emperors could not be consecrated till they had been designated and elected by the Popes. To this strange assumption, Charles, styled the Lusty, though then at the head of a large army, made no resistance.'

On the death of the usurper Eudes, Count of Paris, the lawful monarch, Charles the Simple, was allowed to mount the throne; and here the author remarks that, if Charles had not been absolutely incapable of reigning, the French lords would never have permitted him to assume the sceptre: but his incapacity was favourable to their projects. It was during the twenty-four years in which he bore the title of king, that the usurpations of the nobles, under the denominations of duchies, marquises, countships, and lordships, gained stability; which became as formidable to kings as they were oppressive to the people; and which, after eight centuries of tyranny, only gave way to the despotic but sublime genius of *Richelieu*.—Here, if the writer be understood to the strict letter, he will mislead. He seems to have forgotten that it had been observed of Louis XI, that he was the first who placed the kings of France *bors de page*; the resolute Cardinal is rather to be regarded as having broken the spirit of the nobles, and annihilated their political weight in the state.

It is a just observation of the author, that the policy of the Popes accustomed the Romans to remain for long intervals without Emperors, in order to establish more firmly the dominion which they arrogated. Vacancies of three and ten years were frequently seen to happen; and that which preceded the election of Otho of Saxony embraced thirty-eight years. Every candidate for the imperial diadem deemed it an indispensable requisite, to receive his consecration and his crown from the hands of the Pope.—After having enjoyed the  
supreme

supreme power for two hundred and thirty-five years, the dynasty of Charlemagne disappeared: leaving Europe a prey to a variety of interminable struggles, between the Popes whose power was acquiring solidity, and the Emperors whose authority was declining; between kings who were extending their domains, and lords who increased in number in the midst of disorder and anarchy.

When we approach the thirteenth century, M. JUBÉ gives this general view of affairs:

‘ Italy was the theatre of every species of faction, cruelty, and tyranny. The popes, by dint of daring and assurance, of intrigues and combats, of stratagems and a dextrous use of their spiritual weapons, had just attained the summit of their ambition, and reigned at Rome as independent sovereigns. The Emperors, too weak to sustain their authority in Italy, alienated the most precious rights of the imperial dignity: Savoy had been governed for two hundred years by its counts, who did not receive the title of Duke till the commencement of the fifteenth century: the Milanese were too high spirited to become subjects, and too turbulent to be free; Florence, in the midst of her revolutions, gave herself a republican government: in industry and riches, she was the rival of Pisa, Genoa, and Venice; the active inhabitants of Lucca, and the simple mountaineers of San Marino, enjoyed liberty and excited no jealousy; and Naples, in conjunction with Sicily, formed a particular monarchy.

‘ In Germany, the great officers of the crown, taking advantage of the attacks of the Pope on the Emperors, arrogated new rights and prerogatives. These high functionaries, with the primates of Mentz, Cologne, and Treves, accustomed to present the august object of choice to the other electors, and availing themselves of the extreme difficulty which the other princes and bishops found in traversing the empire, which was at that time infested with robbers, wholly usurped the right of choosing the Emperors. It was by them alone that the elections were made in 1250, in 1257, and 1273. During the interregnum which preceded the election of Rodolph of Hapsburg, the princes appropriated to themselves the property of the crown which lay in their several dominions. By their confederacies, they were able to strip it of the prerogative of conferring the vacant fiefs. The Bull of Pope Urban IV. in 1259, who summoned the two Emperors, Richard of Cornwall and Alphonso of Castille, to submit to his judgment the validity of their election, is the first authentic document which proves the reduction of the electors to the number of seven. The college consisted of three primates, the arch chancellors of Germany, Italy, and Arles; to whom were united the grand marshal, the grand seneschall, the grand cup-bearer, and the grand chamberlain: which functions, at this period, were exercised by the Duke of Saxony, the Duke of Bavaria, then Count Palatine, the King of Bohemia in default of the Duke of Bavaria, and the Margrave of Brandenburg.

‘ All these usages, gradually introduced, formed a kind of constitution which has been successively modified by the golden bull of Charles

Charles IV. in 1356, by the treaty of Westphalia, by the erection of Hanover into an electorate, and by the decisions of the diet of Ratisbon under the guarantee of France and Russia in 1803.

‘ Early in the fourteenth century, we find Pope Benedict XII. declare by a bull, that all the chieftains of Lombardy were legitimate lords of the places which they had usurped; while the Emperor, with equal generosity, by a similar declaration, sanctioned the usurpations on the patrimony of St. Peter. This was the source of that multitude of principalities, to which Italy was chiefly indebted for the troubles and the wars that incessantly disturbed and afflicted her.’

The author enlivens his dismal narrative by noticing the state of the human mind in each century, and by references to those who in the course of it had rendered any services to arts, sciences, or letters. Of these sketches, we shall submit to our readers one specimen :

‘ The fourteenth century, distinguished by the lays of Dante and Petrarch, by the pencil of John Vanneck, by the establishment of the floral games, by the simple recitals of the Sire de Joinville, and by the bold structure of the bridge de St. Esprit, is the epoch of two discoveries, which will for ever continue to influence the relations in which men stand to one another. The compass, invented and perfected by the Neapolitan Gioia or Givja, who imparted the discovery to his sovereign Charles the lame;—and the invention of gunpowder about the year 1330, which, by substituting the blaze, the rapidity, and the ravages of thunder for the slow and noiseless javelin, the massy battering ram, and the cumbrous catapulta, changed all at once the whole science of war, created a new system of tactics, and rendered battles more terrible, but often less murderous.’

We shall here bid adieu to M. JUBÉ, who is about to enter on a period of which we have histories that leave us nothing to desire. His summaries, and those of his continuator, may with advantage be perused as introductions to the pleasing though protracted narrations of Guicciardini, or to the unrivalled pages of Davila; who only wants the charms of a fixed and refined idiom, to constitute him the most inviting as well as the most able and instructive of historians. If the task of M. JUBÉ be rather humble, he has executed it with ability and fidelity, proving himself to be capable of higher undertakings. His volume is indeed the most curious in the whole compilation; in the selection of his matter, he has shewn a sound judgment; and his remarks indicate a capacious mind, which has carefully surveyed the ground over which he has travelled. His performance, however, as well as that of his successor, bears too many of the marks of haste, and is disfigured by numerous inaccuracies and glaring typographical errors.

The

The labours of General SERVAN are also worthy of praise ; since, though they appear to be even more the offspring of haste than those of his coadjutor, they contain many interesting details, neatly and faithfully composed.

Few portions of modern history are more calculated to fix the attention of a reflecting mind, than the latter part of the reign of Louis XIII. ; we refer to that which exhibits Cardinal *Richelieu* on the scene. Though it be impossible to justify all the proceedings, or to vindicate the character of that minister, no public man of modern times is so much intitled to attract our regards : no person ever better understood or more ably conducted the business of a state administrator ; and though all candidates for political distinction should detest his sanguinary and tyrannical turn, they cannot do better than emulate his discernment in judging of the interests of empires, and in choosing his measures. The world is yet without any good digest of the memorials of that period ; and we are obliged to examine an endless store of crude materials, to be satisfied with the general histories of the time, or to trust to the tiresome, endless, bigotted but still valuable *Le Vasseur*. General SERVAN, we think, has very well delineated the traits which distinguish this epoch.

*Richelieu* does not, however, seem to have judged so soundly of the interests of his country, as a not less able statesman and a still more odious character than himself, Louis XI. That crafty monarch resisted all overtures to interfere in the affairs of Italy ; while it appears that the Cardinal was tainted with the mania which had seized the unreflecting monarchs who had preceded the league. The General is of opinion that his negotiations with Urban VIII., the Grand Duke of Tuscany, the republic of Venice, the Helvetic Body, the Court of Turin, the Republic of Genoa, and the Dukes of Modena, Parma, and Mantua, were intended to pave the way for renewing the pretensions of Francis I. to Milan and Naples. He farther supposes that those advances occasioned the complicated and obstinate hostilities which ravaged the south of Europe at the close of the reign of Louis XIII., and the commencement of that of his successor. The pope, though he departed from the policy of his predecessors, who were always devoted to the house of Austria, would take no active part against the Spaniards, whose hauteur disgusted him, until he saw the French arms superior in Italy ; the Grand Duke would not declare till he saw the French also masters of Lombardy ; the Venetians were desirous of remaining neuter ; and the other powers fluctuated in their decisions. The Duke of Savoy was the prince whose alliance it was most important to secure.



The Cardinal instructed the Marshall *Créqui* to propose the surrender of Savoy to France, in exchange for the Milanese and Montferrat; in which case, he promised that Piedmont and the two new acquisitions should be erected into the kingdom of Lombardy.

The duplicity and intrigues of Victor Amadeus are well described by General *SERVAN*; and they are the more curious because they made a dupe of the Grand Cardinal, and occasioned his designs on the Milanese to fail. He also happily delineates the masterly conduct and the surprizing atchievements of the Duke *de Rohan* in the Valteline; of whom he says that 'he there earned the reputation of one of the greatest Generals ever known. Since Sertorius, no officer had been seen to give so many proofs of that foresight, wisdom, courage, and information, which are necessary for mountain-war: nor, since that time, has any one surpassed, or perhaps even equalled the Duke *de Rohan* in this difficult part of military science.'

Treating of the result of the Cardinal's plans respecting Italy, the author observes that, after marches and counter-marches, sieges commenced and raised, truces concluded and violated, things remained in Italy nearly in *statu quo*. The great French minister, who had seen his power endangered by a war which he had stirred up in order to aggrandize himself and the kingdom, found every thing now bend to his authority. The allies were successful in Germany. On the side of Spain, Portugal had recovered its independence, and the Catalans were in open revolt; while in Italy the Neapolitans and Sicilians were ready to break forth into insurrection. The exhausted state of the house of Austria, the inclinations of the allies, and the wishes of Europe, made it probable that peace was approaching: but the king of Spain still hoped to recover part of what he had lost, and the Cardinal thought that his importance was greater in a state of war; for these reasons, blood still continued to stream.

The mighty projects of the Cardinal, however, were now drawing to a close, and he was soon to face an enemy whom no firmness could successfully oppose, and no address over-reach. The author says of him that he appears to have been as it were destined to lord it over the family of Henry IV.; he persecuted his widow in foreign countries, ill-treated his younger son, raised parties against the Queen of England his daughter, wished to render himself master of the Duchess of Savoy her sister, and humbled Louis XIII. while he rendered him powerful. He inspired the Queen with constant dread. He passed the whole of his ministry in exciting and extinguishing hatred; every year witnessed rebellions and chastisements. The Cardinal,

nal, the Sovereign, and the Queen Mother died nearly about the same time: the latter had long been a wanderer, and ended her days in a state of poverty at Cologne.

‘ Louis XIII., though master of a great kingdom, never tasted the pleasures of greatness, nor those of humanity. The lot of the humblest peaceable citizen was preferable to *his* destiny.

‘ Cardinal *Richelieu* was perhaps the most unhappy of the three, because he was the most hated. In the midst, however, of the bustle of public affairs, and of those which affected him personally, the Cardinal did not cease to protect letters, and to cultivate them; he founded the French Academy, and had pieces acted in his palace which he himself composed in part.’

General S. is of opinion that the continual wars of the French in Italy, their expeditions into that country, and their residence in it, contributed insensibly to diffuse in France a love of the arts and sciences of that country. Francis I. protected and promoted literature; it was not extinguished during the league: but it owed its revival to the stormy administration of *Richelieu*, which was the forerunner of a polished and lettered age.

‘ After the unfortunate battle of Norlinguen, in which the allies under the Duke of *Weimar* were defeated, *Oxenstiern* offered Alsace to Louis XIII. on condition that he sent an army to aid the Protestant cause. *Oxenstiern* on this occasion went himself to France to confer with the Cardinal, and concluded with him a treaty of alliance. These two great ministers then concerted the plan which, thirteen years afterward, was executed by the treaty of Munster. Before them, the balance of power was scarcely known. Princes made war without reflecting whether even their victories might not prove prejudicial to them; and they never thought of the dangers which might result from weakening their enemy too much, or from increasing in too great a degree the strength of their ally. *Richelieu* and *Oxenstiern* first set themselves to estimate the weight of nations, and their several interests; to settle their mutual relations, to calculate their forces, and to form a species of politics unknown in former ages.’

History is rendered more instructive by remarks of this nature, and, if introduced sparingly, they are to be encouraged: but the author has expressed himself in the last paragraph in too unqualified a manner. The two celebrated persons whom he mentions might have more distinct ideas of the balance of power, might apply the principle on a larger scale, and might act more on it than had been seen in preceding times: but it was by no means a new discovery; it had been felt, and argued, and put in practice in antient Greece, and in modern Italy; and it is well known that our Elizabeth and Henry IV. of France were so far from being ignorant of it, that they carried their notions on this subject to an extravagant length. The  
view

view entertained of it by the French monarch, and the schemes which he was about to commence in order to carry it into effect, may be seen in *Sully's* Memoirs.

In the author's course downwards to our own marvellous times, we meet with little that merits notice; nor do we find ought to detain us in the accounts of the recent wars of Italy as carried on by revolutionary France, previously to the year 1800.—The thread of affairs, however, as taken up by him at this epoch, certainly deserves attention, since his account is more full and detailed than any that has reached us.

‘At this period,’ he informs us, ‘the French forces were superior to those of the Austrians, from the Valais to the junction of the Necker and the Rhine: but in Italy the case was the reverse; *Mas-sena* was there in a deplorable situation, commanding an inferior army, which was in extreme distress. This inferiority in Italy, it may be presumed, was intended as a feint calculated to mislead the Austrians, and to encourage them in their designs of seizing Liguria, and penetrating into France by the departments of the maritime Alps and the Var. It was thus that *Bonaparte* contrived to remove his enemies from that point by which he proposed to enter Italy, and to render his course more secure along the valley of Aosta and the Simplon. By collecting an army at Dijon, he had insured to himself an easy method of forming a junction with General *Moreau*, entering the country of the Grisons and the Tyrol, seizing the passage of the Alps in order to fall by surprize on Turin or Milan, or succouring the army of Italy by crossing the Var.’

General *SERVAN* observes that the Austrians, by directing their main force against Genoa, with the intention of invading the southern provinces of France, committed a fatal error; and he thinks that they ought to have made their principal efforts on the Reuss and the upper Rhine, by penetrating a second time into Switzerland.

‘The erroneous plan of the Austrians occasioned persons to censure that of *Bonaparte*; its difficulties and hazards were felt and displayed; many would have had the chief consul take advantage of the weakness of the Austrians on the Rhine, by marching to Zurich, and entering Suabia and Bavaria; while General *Moreau* might have pushed directly for Vienna, and forced the Emperor, trembling for his capital, to accept of immediate terms of peace. Though these modes might have insured success with less risque, they were more slow; while the plan adopted by *Bonaparte* better bespoke his genius, his love of glory, and that exalted turn which is only gratified by atchieving things before deemed impossible.’

The adventures of the singular and astonishing march over St. Bernard are detailed in a very lively and interesting manner; as are the particulars of *Bonaparte's* career on his entrance into Italy, and the strange incidents of the eventful day of Marengo.

Marengo. Observing on that memorable battle, the author says; 'no doubt the operations of General *Melas* are chargeable with many faults, but the essential error is to be imputed to the cabinet of Vienna: it must have been apprized of the formation of the Dijon army; it ought much earlier to have opened the campaign of Italy, and to have strongly guarded the passes of St. Gothard, the Simplon, the great and the little St. Bernard, Mont-Cenis, and Mont-Genèvre; and it ought to have had an army of observation placed between Asti and Pavia.'—*Melas* is charged with having most unnecessarily wasted time before Genoa. He should have sent forces to guard the passes into Italy; and, when he found himself obliged to give battle, he should have crossed the Bormida in the night, in order to have fallen on the van guard of the French army which lay isolated at Marengo. Why did he place his numerous cavalry wholly on his left, when by dividing it he might more easily have turned the two wings of the French army? When the French were in full retreat, and only a small part in a defile near Marengo made any resistance, how came he to commit the capital fault of extending his line? Had he been contented with overthrowing the centre, he would have become master of the whole plain of San-Giuliano.—Many more remarks are made on the course which ought to have been followed by *Melas*; and, *à contra*. on the preferable conduct which should have been adopted by the French, instead of hazarding the action of Marengo:—but it is not in our power to follow the military critic through this review.

The author's account of the situation of the several states of Italy, at the period of *Bonaparte's* arrival there, previously to the battle of Marengo, deserves quotation. It is too much in unison with the selfish and impolitic system of the allies, to be wholly unfounded.

'*Bonaparte* and his army were received in Italy as deliverers. The inhabitants had previously conceived that they would be assigned to some Prince who was a stranger to them and to their language; and consternation reigned in all hearts, from the mountains of Switzerland to the extremities of Calabria. It was in vain that the king of Sardinia, who, on hearing of the successes of *Suwarow* and *Melas*, had quitted his isle, approached his territories; it was in vain that the Piedmontese, who had invoked the presence of their monarch, manifested their impatience and discontent by open menaces: this principality, having been transformed into an Austrian province, was administered by Germans, and for their profit; troops, revenues, arsenals, strong places, contributions ordinary and extraordinary, were all in the hands of the Generals and Commissioners of the Emperor. This unhappy country, exhausted to the utmost, was in a state of extreme misery; and her monarch, exiled in a villa near Florence,

rence, by the protectors of the rights of royalty, waited with anxiety to have his fate decided.

‘The Austrian domination was exercised in the same manner in Lombardy, and in the states of Venice; without any intimation on the part of the Austrians that they intended to qualify military administration by introducing civil authority. Churchmen complained that, under their new masters, their property continued not less in sequestration than before; and the people murmured at the inquisitorial searches, imprisonments, exiles, proscriptions, and the capital punishments of those who favoured the French invasion.’

It would hence appear that the Austrians were no mean proficient in the arts which the French had been known to practice so successfully.

‘The state of Naples was more deplorable than that of anterior Italy. The monarch, residing at Palermo, regarded his capital as a conquered country; and the list of punishments which followed the insurrection strikes with horror. Most of the heads that were cut off belonged to the Nobles and Clergy: but the proscription was not confined to the scaffold; imprisonments and exiles more than equalled the executions; and one would have thought that it had been the wish of Ferdinand IV. to reign over deserts.

‘The same derangement prevailed in the states of the church; the military and civil power were divided at Rome between strangers, and a junto composed of Romans. Ancona was in the possession of the Ottomans, Civita Vecchia was held by the Neapolitans, and Ferrara by the Imperialists; the three legations wished for the destruction of the pontifical government; and its restoration was not desired even at Rome. In the situation and the temper in which the people now found themselves, a spark only seemed necessary to produce an universal conflagration.’

Though many of these remarks do not well become a Frenchman, yet, if they be founded, they assist us to account for events which it has seemed difficult to explain.

We have already spoken to the general character of this work. The latter volumes contain much instructive matter, accompanied in many instances with valuable remarks. Such also is the character of the numerous notes which are placed at the end of each volume, and in which are found many important facts and anecdotes. A set of excellent maps likewise illustrates the work. Altogether, then, if this performance will not convey deep instruction to military men, it will render them more accomplished: but though there be in it hints which they will value, it seems to be more adapted for general readers. When *Bonaparte* is the subject, nothing can exceed the transports of rapture which the conqueror, the pacificator, the administrator, the legislator, calls forth; except it be the feelings of indignation and detestation which we

unhappy islanders excite in the pure bosom of this revolutionary minister and General. No courtier at St. Cloud ever exceeded him in fulsome adulation of the tyrant of his country, or dealt in fouler abuse against the English; whom he represents as the last of men, the refuse of the rational creation, and the most depraved of human beings. He rings unceasing changes on our Machiavelian policy, corruption, and perfidy.—We have a specimen of the purity of our censors, in this calumniator; who, after having wallowed in the mire of the revolution, now appears the most unblushing and most abject of *Bonaparte's* flatterers. If we have faults which call for repression, let us be censured by monitors of a more respectable description!

ART. II. *Voyages de Guibert, &c. i. e. Travels of GUIBERT, in different Parts of France and Switzerland, in 1775, 1778, 1784, and 1785. A posthumous Work, published by his Widow. 8vo. pp. 420. Paris. 1806. Imported by Deconchy. Price 8s. sewed.*

IN the twofold character of Inspector of Invalids and Colonel of the Corsican Legion, M. GUIBERT performed various tours, and consigned to his diary such observations as he deemed most worthy of attention. Five of his journeys are here recited in the same number of sections. The first relates to Libourne, Bourdeaux, the battle of Coutras, &c. It commences with an eminent example of the abrupt exchange of sentiment for the language of a book of roads:

\* 1st June, 1775.

• My marriage-day, beginning of a new life. Involuntary shuddering during the ceremony; it was my liberty, my whole life that I pledged. Never did such a crowd of sentiments and reflexions fatigue my mind. Ah! what an abyss, what a labyrinth is the heart of man. I am lost in all the workings of mine: but every thing promises happiness; I marry a woman who is young, pretty, gentle, feeling; who loves me; who, I perceive, is formed to be loved; and whom I love already.

• From the 1st to the 8th.

• Days pass like a dream: this new situation is, indeed, a dream to me; love, friendship, candour, the amiableness of my young wife; her heart unfolds every day. I love her, I shall love her. I am confident that I shall be happy. I quit her with regret:

• The 8th.

• Departure from Courcelles with my father. Road by Gien, and then the cross-road to Vierzon by Argent and Aubigny, &c.

Similar instances abound in the volume.

After a few disjointed and meagre notes, we are reminded that there is no instruction without frequent recurrence to comparisons and interrogations; and that we should live in the constant habit of travelling. In the very next page, however, the author is completely tired of seeing others, and prescribes solitude as the only remedy for *ennui*. As this love of solitude seems to have haunted him in all his peregrinations, we are at a loss to know how he managed his comparisons and queries; and from a singular passage, which occurs in the sequel, we rather suspect that he was no fascinating companion in a post chaise:—‘A young relation,’ says he, ‘is in my carriage. I regret the delightful solitude to which I am accustomed in travelling. The presence, even the *mute* presence of an individual interrupts my thoughts. They no longer roam in space, they no longer enjoy the consciousness of solitude and freedom. The spell and the illusion have vanished. I then shut my eyes, and try to forget every thing around me; but then I am likewise cut off from the view of nature and her delightful inspirations.’ When, therefore, whole stages are passed unnoticed, we may, without breach of charity, conclude that the journalist was condemned to this state of darkness, and that some unfortunate fellow-traveller was compelled to meditate or to sleep beside him.

Several striking particulars are related of the terrible disorder which raged among the cattle, in Guienne, in 1775; and some plausible conjectures are offered in support of the opinion, that the ruins of the reputed palace of Gallienus at Bordeaux are only the remains of a circus of moderate dimensions, and devoid of architectural embellishments.

The second section transports us, in seven lines, to Brest:—a velocity which scarcely allows us to pause for a moment, and to participate in the author’s feelings on coming within sight of the sea. ‘The view of the sea,’ he remarks, ‘always affects me; it expands, it saddens, it fills my mind, but never with an amiable sentiment; the uniform result is immersion in the vast, the gloomy, the infinite. It is like the view of the sky, and the idea of eternity,’ &c. Our sentimental Colonel acquaints us, moreover, that a military procession always produces an indescribable agitation in his mind, and tears in his eyes. He then asks, very gravely, whether all this can proceed from a recollection of the antient triumphs; or from the illusive dream that the object of military honours is always deserving of them; or from the *secret chimera* that he may one day aspire to them himself.

His strictures on the harbour of Brest, on the narrowness of the inner station, the superfluous magnificence of the arsenals and storehouses, the erection of useless fortifications, the transactions of commissaries and naval commanders, &c. &c. are apposite and judicious, though many of them no longer accord with existing circumstances. They are followed by a declamatory apostrophe to Madame Guibert, whose mind is represented as expanding to excellence in *solitude*: 'Yes, in a few years, thou wilt no longer be an ordinary woman. Thou wilt realize for me one of those imaginary beings created by the immortal fancy of *Richardson*, *Sterne*, and *Jean Jacques*; thou wilt recall to me *Clarissa*, *Sophia*, *Eliza*; thou wilt be the sole object of my worship. In thee, my other sentiments will all concentrate; and my enemies will grow pale with envy, when they behold me possessed of happiness which they can neither remove nor impair.'

The third journey was more extensive and varied, comprizing Lorraine, Alsace, Franche Comté, and part of Switzerland. The neatness and regularity of the works at Bitche are cited as rarities in the annals of French fortification: but it is not concealed that they were constructed at a great expence, and that they oppose a very ineffectual barrier to an invading army. The inhabitants of the town are computed at two thousand, and are remarkable for their indolence. The dwellings of a few Anabaptists in the neighbourhood are easily distinguished by their superior cleanliness, the usual concomitant of well regulated industry. 'Good and peaceful Anabaptists,' exclaims the Colonel, 'I would gladly see you assembled, not as a sect, but as a nation and a people.'

M. GUIBERT's account of a visit to the Landgrave of Hesse Darmstadt, and to the camp of the Maréchal de Villars, from which the Duke of Marlborough retired in 1705, occupies many amusing pages: but, in the present laudable zeal for military reform, we shall extract in preference the valuable hints which such scenes suggested to a skilful and celebrated tactician.

'All our ideas,' he observes, 'are circumscribed, and dictated by routine; I may even venture not to except those of the king of Prussia: and glory of a new species is reserved for a Sovereign, a General, and a man of talents who may succeed to him. I say a Sovereign, because none else can thus command his armies on new principles. A mere General could succeed in the experiment only by rendering his officers and men familiar to the change of operations by long training. Why in France, then, has it never been proposed to intrust a General with an army during peace? to give his genius full scope and improvement by the habit of accommodating his troops to circumstances? Why has it never been proposed to



establish a school of tactics on a large scale? Yet what more simple and practicable than to assemble in our great military districts, on the frontiers, armed divisions; to oppose them to one another; to imitate some of the manœuvres of our distinguished Generals; to act over some celebrated battles on the very spots on which they were fought; to suppose, for example, one of these divisions in the position of *Marechal Villars* at *Sierck*, and to order another to attack or dislodge it, so as to rouse the energies of the rival leaders? It will, perhaps, be objected that the execution of this idea would require the formation of bridges, the opening of communications, the destruction of hedges and woods, the purchase of horses for dragging artillery, and the conveyance of bread for the troops: all which would, no doubt, be attended with some expence and some compensations: but every journey to *Fontainebleau*, and every court festival, costs much more, without being of any benefit to the state.'

Of other objects which afford room for interesting details, we may mention the extensive buildings, the overgrown revenues, and the relaxed discipline of the Abbey of *Orval*; the ascent of the *Ballon*, one of the *Vôgian* hills; and many grand and picturesque scenes in *Switzerland*, particularly the lakes of *Thunn*, *Bienne*, and *Neuchâtel*. The glaciers of *Grindelvald*, however, seem to have chilled the author's enthusiasm; for he declined to approach the largest and most elevated, alleging that a distant prospect was sufficient, and that he had already seen as much in the way of glaciers as would serve him for his life time. In these hoary regions, he saw no wonders which may not be seen in miniature in a common mass of ice or snow. In vain he is told that *Faucigny* exhibits a more sublime spectacle than *Grindelvald*; he swears that he will never make the tour of the *Vallais* to look on frozen mountains.—His excursion to *Missembourg*, which forms the subject of the fourth section, is much less fertile of incident and remark; though several of the places which are mentioned might have furnished scope for varied descriptions, or alluring commentaries. The author dreams in broad day, and with his eyes open, that he is king of France: but so might any castle-builder in his closet, or in his bed, without posting to *Weissembourg*.

The last of these journeys presents a long itinerary, of which the principal stages are *Angoulême*, *Poitiers*, *Bordeaux*, *Dax*, *Bayonne*, *Pau*, *Barèges*, *Bagnères*, *Auch*, *Montauban*, *Carcassone*, *Narbonne*, *Perpignan*, *Bellegarde*, *Beziers*, *Montpellier*, *Nîmes*, *Avignon*, *Vaucluse*, *Sisteron*, *Embrun*, *Drais*, *Toulon*, *Marseilles*, and *Lyons*. Several of these towns, however, are only mentioned by name; while the miscellaneous reflections to which they give rise have lost much of their import from the lapse of twenty years, and unprecedented revolutionary

lunatory changes. The Alps and the Pyrenees, which are less liable to vicissitude than towns and their inhabitants, are thus contrasted :

‘ The Alps are certainly more elevated, more majestic, and more deeply impressed with the character of greatness. In the Pyrenees, they talked to me of the *Pic du Midi* : yesterday, I passed along the foot of it—but what a surprizing difference between it and Schreckhorn, Jungfrahorn, Grindelvald, and many other Swiss mountains, of which the summits and sides are covered with perpetual snow. Not a particle of snow is now to be seen on the *Pic du Midi* ; and the Pyrenees contain none, except in some rocky recesses, from which the sun’s rays are wholly excluded : whereas in the Alps it reaches a great way down ; and enormous glaciers, as lofty as the mountains themselves, rest their bases even in the valleys, and brave the intensity of the summer heats.

‘ It is in the Alps that we should contemplate the grand phenomena of nature ; namely, those enormous glaciers which constitute the origin of the largest rivers in Europe, and all those beautiful accidents of colour, light, and shade to which they give rise. It is in the Alps that we should investigate the fantastic configurations, the gigantic forms, the grand effects of water, and those considerable lakes, so varied in their contours, and whose depth sometimes equals the height of the surrounding mountains. It is in the Alps that we find the greatest variety of botanical productions, and of appropriate species of animals, which exist not in the Pyrenees ; such as the chamois, the moufouli, the eagle, and several other large birds of prey. The men, too, are in general taller and more robust than in the Pyrenees ; their manners are more original ; and their customs are more decidedly opposed to those of the inhabitants of the plains. There is not in the world a race of men or women that can be compared to the inhabitants of Hasely and other valleys. In favour of the Alpine mountaineers, we have still to add all the virtues and qualities which are derived from the constitution of the governments under which they live, viz. more hospitality, more frankness, and more the air of happiness, tranquillity, innocence, and health all united ; in a word, more exalted ideas deduced from the recollections of history, or created by the circumstances of situation, or inspired by the sentiments and images of encircling liberty, excite a greater degree of enthusiasm, and a more determined disposition to reflection. We associate with the Alps the mighty names of Cæsar, Hannibal, and Rome. In reference to more modern times, we recall with ideas of less splendour, but with more heartfelt satisfaction, the name of William Tell and the plains of Morat ; we roam with delight in the country of *Gernier* and of *Haller*, and we explore with tender curiosity the scenes painted by *Rousseau*—the only scenes which his pencil could not embellish. We fondly flatter ourselves that *St. Preux* and *Julia* were not imaginary beings, and that their interesting passion may have existed. In short, let every historical or dramatic painter, who is ambitious of conceiving great designs, and of ascertaining and extending the measure of his powers, travel in the Alps.—In the Pyrenees, the mind is rarely agitated by sud-

den impressions ; there nature neither makes the hair to stand erect, nor the heart to beat with alarm ; she will never raise us above ourselves, but often presents pleasing prospects, more gay and fertile valleys than those of the Alps, verdure (I believe I may add) of a more lively shade, and certainly waters more fine and translucent,—not, as in the Alps, issuing from the melting of snow, but all bursting from the rock, and claiming a nearer kindred with the caverns of the earth.

‘ The Pyrenees hold no distinguished rank in the annals of the world. The death of Orlando and his valiant knights in the defiles of Roncevaux, which may very probably be a fable, is the only great event connected with the Pyrenees. They have never been the scene of great armies, nor of great conquerors ; of combats for glory, nor, which is better still, for liberty ; and never have they, like Swisserland, been inhabited by great poets, or great philosophers. But they may prove the cradle of artists, of writers of romance, and even of poets of gentle and feeling hearts ; for every where, within their precincts, we tread on fairy ground, or behold pastoral landscape, or meditate on exquisite models of modern gardening.

‘ A journey to the Pyrenees may suffice to give a lady an idea of a mountainous country : but a man who thirsts for knowledge, who naturally prefers great masses to details, and the majestic horrors to the softer charms of a landscape, who disdains inconvenience and fatigue, should, without hesitation, contemplate and study nature in the Alps.

‘ I would not advance a single step to revisit what I have seen of the Pyrenees ; and I firmly believe that the parts of the range which I know not are like those which I do know : but with transport I would still make a third tour to the Alps, certain of beholding new beauties, and experiencing new sensations.’

We have given this parallel entire, not because we regard it as completely accurate, but because we admire the spirit and originality of the passage. Had the writer travelled at the present day, he would probably have adverted to the geological features of these mountain chains, and certainly would not have asserted that the chamois and the eagle are unknown in the Pyrenees.

Before we close this volume, it may be proper to remark that it bears more the stamp of a series of notes and observations destined for the port-folio of an individual, than for the entertainment or instruction of society ; and that it is more calculated to excite the attention of Frenchmen than of the inhabitants of other countries. Its merit chiefly consists in the accuracy and impartiality of its local strictures, and in the manly exposure of various abuses under the old *regime*.—For other particulars relative to the author and his writings, we beg leave to refer to page 523 of the 39th volume of our New Series.

ART. III. *Manuel de Santé, &c. i. e.* A Manual of Health, or new Elements of practical Medicine, according to the present State of the Science and the analytical Method of *Pinel* and *Bichat*; for the Use of Physicians, Surgeons, Clergymen, and other Inhabitants of the Country, &c. &c. By L. J. M. ROBERT, M. D. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe, London, Price 15s.

WE take up with interest a publication which professes to display the state of practical medicine in France; a subject concerning which we are perhaps less informed, than respecting the advances of our rivals in any other departments of science. The commencement of M. ROBERT's treatise, however, is somewhat repulsive to the feelings of Englishmen; because, in the true French style, it sets out with a puffing account of the wonderful progress that has been lately made in the medical art, which is wholly attributed to his own countrymen. 'The progress of medicine in France,' he says, 'since the establishment of the clinical hospitals, is as astonishing as it has been rapid: but nothing has more accelerated its success than the introduction of the analytical method. To this is to be ascribed the improvement which the natural sciences have experienced in Europe during the last ten years. *Pinel* has done for medicine what *Tournefort*, *Linné*, and *Jussieu* have executed with so much glory in botany. His works offer no theory, but all observation; his method is like that of *Hippocrates*; and the youngest practitioner, formed in the nosographic school, determines the species of diseases as readily as the botanist ascertains that of his plants.'—We have next a flourish in honour of *Bichet*, 'the new Boerhaave, the second Morgagni;' then we come to the discoveries of 'the celebrated professor *Corvisart*;' and we conclude with *Bosquillon* and *Portal*, who, on the old principle of "no cure no pay," 'reckon their visits only by their cures and their brilliant success.' Directed by such illustrious guides, the author has undertaken to give a system of popular medicine; not indeed, as he informs us, in the quackish manner of *Tissot* or *Buchan*, but founded on the true principles of science, and such an one that every person may receive instruction from it, who has not been so fortunate as to study under the practitioners of Paris. How happy must we consider ourselves in being possessed of this treasure! of a volume in which we are promised 'all the materials of a vast library, and all the light of a medical encyclopedia!'

Before he enters on the main object of his work, and treats of individual diseases, M. ROBERT takes a cursory view of those

organs or functions, by the state of which we principally judge of the presence of disease; the aspect of the countenance, the organs of sense, the abdomen, the respiration, circulation, pulse, &c. The observations are in general correct, though we think that they not unfrequently display an affectation of minuteness; and notwithstanding the wonderful improvement of medical science in France, we occasionally remark doctrines obtruded, which, in this country, have been long considered as obsolete. Our national vanity may indeed be flattered by the condescension of the author in noticing Sydenham, but we confess that we did not expect to see his theory of fever completely adopted. M. ROBERT unreservedly states that he considers fever only as an instrument of which nature makes use to remove some evil;—a remedy which we are in the habit of considering as much more to be dreaded than any diseases that it can cure. It is not only to the doctrine of Sydenham, however, that this writer pays so much respect; he also adopts in its full extent the theory of Hippocrates concerning crudity and coction, appears to found his practice on it, and permits it to regulate his several movements. We may infer that these hypotheses are maintained by the physicians from whom he professes to derive his medical knowledge, and whose discoveries he so pompously announces at the commencement of his volume.—It is principally with reference to this Hippocratic doctrine that he divides the practice of medicine into two branches, which he styles active and expecting; these are to be applied according as he conceives that the diseases ought to be directly opposed, or suffered to proceed without interruption, from an idea that they are performing some salutary effect in the system. A considerable part of his practice in fever is of the expecting kind.

We have already noticed the encomiums which the author passes on M. Pinel; and he is again very enthusiastic in his commendation of the '*nosographie philosophique*,' the classification of which is adopted in the work before us. We shall briefly describe it, since it is little known in this country, and will be interesting to our scientific readers.—Diseases are divided into five classes, fevers, inflammations, hæmorrhages, nervous affections, and affections of the absorbent system. Fevers are arranged under six heads, *angisténiques*, (or inflammatory,) *méningo-gastriques*, (or bilious,) *adéno-méningées pituiteuses-mésentériques*, (or mucous) *adynamiques*, (or putrid,) *ataxiques*, (or malignant,) *adéno-nerveuses*, (or the plague). These names at first view appear singular: but a reference to their derivation will render them intelligible; and, admitting the system of the author, they will be found not inappropriate.

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The *angisténique*, or vessel-distending fever, is the simple *synocha* of Cullen; a disease which, although certainly very rare in this country, may be easily conceived to exist. The *meningo-gastriques* are the fevers which have their seat or origin in the epigastric viscera, under which head are included some diseases usually referred to the bowels; and the author not only assigns to the same division the autumnal remitting fever, but inclines to place the tertian in the same class.—The 4th division of fevers appears to us considerably obscure; and the description which is given would rather indicate a variety of the common typhus, produced by a peculiarity of temperament, than an essentially different disease. We were surprised to find quartans placed under this head.—The two next classes, *adynamiques* and *ataxiques*, seem to answer pretty nearly to the popular idea of the putrid and the nervous fever; those two varieties of typhus, in the former of which the sanguiferous, and in the latter the nervous systems are more especially affected. The names are obviously derived, the one from the remarkable diminution of strength, the other from the irregularity of its symptoms.—The *adeno-nerveuse*, or plague, so called in consequence of its being seated both in the glandular and the nervous systems, is sufficiently distinct from the other species.—These are to be considered as the grand divisions into which fevers are to be distributed: but it is not infrequent for two of them to become united, and to form an intermediate species. The author supposes that the American fever is formed by the union of the gastric and the adynamic, the nature of the disease being adynamic, but its particular seat being gastric. The *hydrocephalus internus* is placed among the ataxic fevers.

Book II. contains the *phlegmasiæ*; arranged according as they are cutaneous, cellular or glandular, seated in the joints and muscles, in the mucous membranes in general, or in that of the stomach and intestines. Among the cutaneous *phlegmasiæ* are ranked the *exanthemata* of Cullen. The hæmorrhages form the 3d class; the chief peculiarity of which is that the scurvy is placed among them. The nervous diseases are divided into, 1st, mental diseases, 2d, spasms, including epilepsy, hysteria, and tetanus, 3d, irregularity in the nervous functions, including palsy, asthma, *angina pectoris*, and *tic doloieux*; and 4th, comatose affections. The 5th class is occupied by the diseases of the absorbent system; 1st, several cutaneous affections, as leprosy, elephantiasis, herpes, itch, &c. 2d, diseases of the lymphatic glands, mesenteric atrophy, *phthisis pulmonalis*, syphilis, rickets, and the different species of dropsy.

It is not our present object to criticize M. *Pinel's* nosology: but we shall briefly remark on it that the orders, into which the fevers and inflammations are divided, although in some respects not without foundation, appear to us on the whole indistinct and whimsical; the arrangement of the nervous diseases is more natural and better digested; and we consider the last class as a valuable appendage to the system of Cullen. Nothing, indeed, can be more ill-assorted than the *cachexie* of this author; it is entirely an artificial class, and the characters of it are vague and indeterminate. M. *Pinel* has very properly distributed, into the different parts of his system, those topical diseases which depend on constitutional causes; Cullen's class of *locales* has led him into strange inconsistencies.

In order to afford our readers an opportunity of judging respecting the merits of this performance, we shall quote at length some particular parts, which may be considered as exemplifications of the remainder. We shall give some account of M. ROBERT's method of treating fever. With respect to the first three orders, the inflammatory, the gastric, and the mucous, he points out four objects which particularly require to be considered;—1. The time or the duration of the disease; 2. The efforts which nature makes to cure it; 3. The management of the patient, with respect both to mind and body; and 4. The medicines to be prescribed. He assumes as the foundation of his practice, that all these species of fever have their regular term of duration, which it is impossible or undesirable to controul, after a certain period of the disease. Unless it be checked at its very onset, the object of the physician is rather to assist than to oppose the course of the complaint; the progress of nature is not to be interrupted: but our efforts are principally to be directed to second her attempts at producing a crisis. In the 4th species of fever, the putrid, we are to employ less of the *expecting* and more of the *active* medicine; for the author admits that, in this case, the unaided powers of the constitution are wholly inadequate to the cure.

When the disease is produced by contagion, as in an anatomical theatre, an hospital, or a prison, it is proper, as soon as the invasion is perceived, to drink a glass of generous wine, or a little diluted spirit. If serious symptoms make their appearance, we must administer an emetic, in order to remove the focus of contagion; sudorifica are especially advisable, provided that they do not augment the natural warmth of the patient. We then employ barley or oatmeal gruel, lemon or orangeade, decoctions of the acid fruits, and a solution of cream of tartar. It is in the second stage, when the symptoms become aggravated, that we have recourse to generous wine, given in small and frequently repeated doses, and to aromatic spirituous waters. Diluted spirit, camphorated mixtures, ether, bitters,

and sinapisms, serve to re-animate the powers of life. If delirium shews itself, we must suspend the use of wine and cordials, frequently renew the air of the chamber, apply to the head cold embrocations made of rose water, and warm fomentations of vinegar to the legs. If colliquative sweats break out, the patient must drink water tinged with a little wine, or acidulated with the sulphuric acid. To a copious diarrhœa we oppose astringent powders, mucilages, and opium, with small doses of rhubarb or ipecacuanha. When glandular swellings appear, we must regard them, according to *Bang*, as generally having a fatal termination, and requiring a different method of treatment from that which is usually followed when these tumors are considered as a metastasis, and when their suppuration is promoted. With this view, *Bang* applied leeches to the part, blisters to the arms, and on the next day to the legs; and he caused the tumors to be rubbed with volatile liniment. Then he gave a powder composed of equal parts of bark and rhubarb, which he continued for some days, and finished by a decoction of bark. All the drinks in putrid fevers ought to be given cold, because they are then much more tonic. In Germany, yeast has lately been considered as a specific against putrid fever; they give six or eight spoonsfull of it daily.\*

We now copy M. ROBERT's directions for the cure of scarlet fever:

'The treatment is the same with that of the measles, whether the *scarlatina* be simple or complicated. Sydenham recommended an anodyne to be given every night, and afterward a purgative. He also advised the syrup of lemonjuice, with the water of black cherries. *Anasarca* frequently comes on towards the 14th or 15th day of the disease, without the patient having been too soon exposed to cold air; and in order to prevent its occurrence, it has been proposed to confine the convalescents to their chamber for two or three weeks; to employ, over all the body, frictions with flannels impregnated with aromatic vapours, and slightly stimulant fomentations; or to use laxatives. Gentle sudorifics are also administered; and, when the disease has declared itself, diuretics. The infusion of elder flowers, or tisan of the roots of strawberries and couch-grass with nitre, will often suffice to disperse the effused fluid. If weakness and atony in the system be suspected, bark and tonics will be proper. If there be a putrid or gangrenous affection of the throat, we should touch the tonsils with muriatic acid and the honey of roses; and we should second the effect by detersive and antiseptic gargles, and by the employment of the decoction of bark or aromatic waters.'

These, we think, may be regarded as fair specimens of M. ROBERT's practice. It will, no doubt, be considered by our

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\* Here we need scarcely remind our readers of the attempt to introduce the application of yeast, in cases of putrid fever, in this country, by a benevolent and ingenious clergyman, the Rev. Edmund Cartwright, now D. D. Great success attended his own experiments, but we have not heard that the practice has been much adopted.

physicians



physicians as frequently trifling, and, on the whole, inert ; a necessary consequence of the author's theory respecting the powers of the *vis medicatrix nature*, a doctrine which is rapidly losing its authority in this country. We cannot but observe that the writer very rarely refers either to the writings or the opinions of the English practitioners. Indeed he appears to consider Paris as the centre of medical knowledge ; and he seems to imagine that he can perform no greater service to science, than by imparting to the unlearned some of those discoveries which have been brought to light by the favored sons of Esculapius, who superintend the hospitals of that imperial city.

Having in the first volume gone through the different diseases in their nosological order, and given an account of their symptoms and method of cure, M. ROBERT proceeds in the second to treat on the other branches of his subject. He begins with what must be considered as of prime importance in a 'manual of health,' an elementary course of the *hygiene* ; in which he successively treats of the atmosphere, of the action of cold on the body, of cloathing, of baths, of aliments, of exercise, of sleep, of mental affections, and of *cosmetics*. Under each of these heads, a number of remarks are included ; some useful, some amusing, others trifling, and not a few erroneous. The work being principally intended for popular use, we do not look for that methodical arrangement which we should have expected in one that was more purely scientific ; yet we think that a greater attention to method would have been desirable. Our limits necessarily prevent us from entering on a minute analysis of the contents of this volume ; and indeed we do not regard them as of sufficient importance to deserve such an investigation. We shall therefore only notice a few detached observations which particularly arrested our attention in the perusal ; and which, we apprehend, will evince that we have not been too severe in the character which we have given of the publication.

When speaking of the atmosphere, the author proposes to attach conductors to poplar trees, in order to prevent the fatal effects which are occasionally produced by lightning.—In the section on the effects of cold, he attributes chilblains to the thawing of the humors which had been previously frozen ; and he informs us that ulcers may be cured by throwing on them the focus of the burning glass ; while the use of the cold bath thickens the skin.—With respect to *cosmetics*, he gives directions for washing the face, and advises the ladies to perform this operation in the evening instead of the morning ; a piece of advice which we do not hope to see followed in this country.

country.—The chemical observations, which are occasionally introduced, will be frequently found inaccurate. The author speaks of the sulphat of lime as existing in several of the animal fluids, asserts that there is no albumen in vegetables, mentions saccharine salts as contained in the serum of the blood, and states that the oxalat of lime is one of the most frequent ingredients in urinary calculi. Under the head of aliments, we have considerably minute accounts of the different kinds of broths, soups, stews, &c., which would be much more suitable to a work on cookery; and in the same part we are informed that goat's milk gives fluidity to the blood, and that they who drink it sleep less than those who use cow's milk.

The next division of this volume contains a sketch of pharmaceutical chemistry: which we consider as, on the whole, less exceptionable than the former part. The directions given for preserving and drying a great variety of plants must appear tedious to an English reader, but may be necessary to the French practitioner, in consequence of the more complicated nature of his prescriptions, and the greater use which he makes of indigenous vegetables. The different operations of pharmacy are described, and the chapter concludes with some good remarks on the method of forming and arranging medical prescriptions.

An abridgement of surgical therapeutics next succeeds; and here we are struck with the circumstance of some diseases being placed under this department, which, with us, fall under the care of the physician; such as rheumatism and erysipelas. In this chapter, M. ROBERT treats of venereal affections. He adopts the idea that syphilis and gonorrhœa both proceed from the same contagion, and that they are convertible into each other, the former disease being produced, as he supposes, from the suppression of the discharge in the latter; and he also imagines that phthisis may arise from the same cause. He asserts that we have no remedy for gonorrhœa except mercury, and recommends it to be employed for the space of 40 or 50 days. If he has given us a faithful picture of the state of medical science in France, these remarks will not tend to raise our idea of it, even on a disease which the medical men of that country have made an object of particular attention.—Our readers will be amused at a remedy which is proposed for pains in the ears, viz. the application of leeches to the anus, a practice no doubt founded on the remains of a theory long ago obsolete in Great Britain. In this part of his work, the author frequently quotes the authority of M. *Lassus*.

The next chapter consists of 'some new reflections upon chronic diseases and their treatment.' The principal novelty here

here observable is the recommendation of vomits in a variety of cases, in which their use had not before been applied, for the purpose of exciting in the system at large some new action or irritation; and we are informed that they always accelerate the healing of wounds. On the subject of glandular obstructions, M. ROBERT refers to some valuable remarks of *Portal*, which are not much known to Englishmen; and we shall therefore extract a few which relate to the general treatment of these affections, as a sample of the *manner* of French practice:

‘Authors recommend indifferently all the aperients: but we must be aware that they ought to be varied according to the cause of the disease. We prescribe medicinal soups, and the extracts of plants that are saponaceous or slightly bitter, such as the extract of patience, and of hops, and woodlice; we render them more active by antimonials and ox’s gall. We employ the extract of hemlock, when the blood-vessels are distended; also arum, holly, and all the aperient apozems, the juice of chervil and borage, the syrups of fumitory, of gentian, and of hops, succeed very well; mineral waters and baths are also useful.’

We were somewhat surprized to observe *cholera* and *ileus* placed among chronic diseases.

Three chapters yet remain, which present ‘a guide to mothers and nurses,’ observations on the use of blood letting, (taken from the practice of Dr. *Besquillon*,) and a large collection of formulæ. The same character applies to these as to the former chapters: they contain some good remarks, but dispersed through a large mass of such as are trifling or indifferent. Altogether, we consider the second volume of this Manual as less valuable than the first.

ART. IV. *Memoires Historiques sur les Templiers, &c.*; i. e. Historical Memoirs concerning the Templars, or new Elucidations of their History, their Trials, the Accusations preferred against them, and the secret Causes of their Ruin. By Ph. G\*\*\*. 8vo. pp. 410. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 7s.

THE abolition of the once famous order of the Knights Templars is an event which is neither so remote, nor of such inferior importance, as to render that curiosity reprehensible or even idle which desires to learn the motives that led to it, and the grounds on which it rested. It is the object of the present volume to gratify such a wish; and how far that end has been attained, the reader will be able to judge from the account which we shall submit to his perusal.—The preface very properly sets forth the state of the question as it stood previously to this undertaking.

It is well known that the Free Masons in Germany have been fond of deriving their origin from the Templars; and this circumstance induced *Nicolai* to investigate the ground of the claim, the result of which was communicated to the public in *An Essay on the Secret of the Templars*; which gave rise to new hypotheses, and occasioned much controversy. The same subject also engaged a large share of attention among the countrymen of the present author.—This situation of things led *M. Moldenhauer*, an eminent Professor of Copenhagen, to attempt a farther investigation of the facts, in the hope that new light would be reflected on the matters in dispute. In the course of a journey undertaken for literary purposes, he made a diligent search for additional records in the grand suit which had been prosecuted against the knights of the temple; and he was so fortunate as to discover, in the Library of St. Germain-des-Prés, a manuscript register of the proceedings of the Commission appointed by the Pope to try the order, which continued to sit from August 1309, to June 1311. This report contains 231 interrogatories, of which *Dupuy* had published only a part. Two years afterward, another important document was obtained, namely, a collection of the latent statutes of the order, and which it is presumed were in force at the time of its abolition. It was found in the Corsini library at Rome by *M. Münter*, another Danish Professor, and was written in the Provençal dialect. Both these manuscripts were translated into German, and published; and, furnished with this additional information, Professor *Münter* composed a very curious dissertation on the principal accusations which had been preferred against the Templars. The person to whom we are indebted for the performance before us, and who here appears in the several characters of translator, abridger, and original writer, properly observes that the history of the Templars principally belongs to that of France, inasmuch as the order was originally founded by one of the saints of that country, and at a later period was abolished by one of its kings: it is also the same country that has contributed the documents from which our accounts of it have been drawn.

The present volume is divided into five parts: 1. A chronological summary of the general history of the Templars, of the particular history of their trial, and the abolition of their order. 2. A sketch of the constitution of the order of the Temple, such as it appears to have been from their statutes and the proceedings at their trial. 3. An exact translation (with the omission of some parts) of the dissertation of *M. Münter*, which forms a new and ingenious apology for the order, and which is certainly the most able defence of them that has yet appeared.

appeared. 4. An historical treatise formed from these several materials, and which occupies the greater part of the volume; which is, however, to be considered rather as a supplement to former histories than as superseding them. 5. A summary of the proceedings against the order by the commissioners under the bull of Pope Clement V. and of the acts published by Professor *Möhlenhauer*.

This order dates its origin from the year 1118, and it is well known that the object of its formation was the protection of the numerous pilgrims who visited the holy city. With the view of cementing their union, they adopted a religious rule, and made vows. In 1125, they were only nine in number. They took their name from the vicinity of the Temple of Jerusalem, to the patriarch of which city they were subject.

In 1128, their order was confirmed by the council of Troyes, and they were from that time called Templars. St. Bernard was their warm protector; indeed he may be considered as their founder, since it was he who supplied them with a rule which was similar to that of the Benedictines.

The rise of the order to wealth and power was most rapid. As early as the year 1140, they were possessed of considerable establishments, and many fortresses. A little time later, they made many conquests from the Moors in Spain and Portugal; and their acquisitions were transferred to them by the kings of those countries. Before the year 1150, they established themselves at the Temple at Paris. This district, which was then marsh land, wholly belonged to them; and a long period elapsed before it was included within the precincts of the city. Eugene III., who was Pope about this time, was a great protector of the knights. Their exploits are celebrated in the histories of the crusades: but the same accounts are full of complaints preferred against them by the Christian princes of the East, and by those of the West who transplanted themselves into Asia to wage war against the infidels; they appear also to have roused in a degree the jealousy of the other rival orders.

It was principally by the Templars that Acre was defended in 1291, when it was besieged and taken by the Sultan of Cairo. When the Templars, as well as all other Christians, were driven from their possessions in Asia, they established themselves in Cyprus, and in other adjoining islands: a few years later, namely, in 1306, the grand master, with all the chiefs of the order, removed to Paris, established themselves at the Temple, and brought with them thither its treasure and its archives. At the time even of this removal, it appears that Philip the Fair was the secret enemy of the order; since as early as 1305 he applied to his creature, Pope Clement V. to abolish

abolish it; and from that period till the grand blow was struck, it appears that the Pope and the King were concerting measures, though with the utmost secrecy, for that purpose.

On the 13th October 1307, the knights at Paris, and throughout the whole extent of France, were arrested all at the same instant; a measure which was effected in the provinces by means of sealed orders, which were not to be opened till a given moment by those who were destined to carry them into execution. Letters were also addressed to all the Princes of Europe, inviting them to exercise the same rigour; which in fact they all adopted, sooner or later.—The trial commenced *instantly*. The brother Guillaume, a Dominican, confessor to the king, and inquisitor-general of the faith named by the Pope, presided over it, either in person, or by his delegates; and one hundred and forty knights were interrogated at Paris in the space of a month. These interrogatories are preserved to us: but of such as were taken in the provinces only eight remain.

The statutes which have been discovered by Professor *Müntzer* afford additional elucidation of the constitution of the brotherhood. It appears that, in order to have been a knight of the Temple, a person must have descended from a father who either was a knight or who possessed the requisite qualifications. It was in fact the practice, though not founded on any law, for the candidate to pay, on admission, a certain sum of money. The term of the noviciate was regulated by the grand master at his pleasure. To the three vows of obedience, chastity, and poverty, was added that of the defence of the holy land. Nothing is more certain than that the order indulged in every species of luxury.—It was not till forty or fifty years after its foundation, that priests were admitted into it as members; and they were allowed to share in its government, and to rise to dignities. Any interdict on a district by a Prelate did not affect the order, nor the persons affiliated with it; who, we are informed, were very numerous.

In the order, *the Master held the place of God*: but this, which was the usual phrase employed to describe his authority, was not strictly correct, since he was subject to the general chapters; though these assemblies were held in great secrecy, and were seldom called together. The council of the order, which was next in authority to the general chapter, consisted of the grand master, the dignitaries, the provincial masters present, the assistant masters, and the knights summoned by the Master.

Pope Alexander III., in the year 1172, first exempted the knights from episcopal jurisdiction, and rendered them amenable only to the Pope. He released them from liability to all taxes, including even customs imposed on merchandise. The chiefs

were prohibited to confer preferment on any member, at the request of any king, prince, or grandee.

We shall now take notice of those parts of Professor *Münter's* vindication which appear to be the most original :

‘ On mere suspicion, and before a tittle of evidence was given against them, the knights received the treatment of convicts. Accustomed to all the indulgences which affluence procures, they were allowed only twelve-pence a day for subsistence : they were shamefully robbed by their gaolers : they were interdicted divine service, even at the hour of death ; and they were refused burial in consecrated ground.

‘ As to their confessions, which formed the chief evidence against them, at one moment promises of liberty, of impunity, and of great recompense, were employed in order to procure them ; at another, the threat of perpetual imprisonment and of a cruel death : sometimes they were tormented by being forced to endure hunger, and at others their enemies held up to their view the example of those of their brethren who had died under the torture. At Caen Royal, letters containing offers of life, liberty, and rich pensions, if they would confess, were produced to them ; and it was at the same time observed that their denial would be of no avail, because the order was already annihilated.’

The Professor remarks that the secrecy which accompanied the admission of candidates into the order very much favoured the accusations of their foes ; and that the Dominicans, who were the prosecutors on this occasion, were well versed, by their experience in the South of France, in the practice of preferring heretical charges. He thinks that most of those, which were alleged against the order, were the same with those that had been imputed to the heretics of that period : but he denies that they had adopted any of those heresies ; and he contends that the statutes are conclusive on this subject. They knew how to wield the sword, but they brought with them no secret doctrines from the East ; and this accusation was completely denied by the chief persons in the fraternity.

Having examined the grounds of several charges advanced against the knights, and shewn that they were mere exaggerations of innocent usages observed by them, the Professor concludes with observing that none but monks, practised in forging heresies, could thus have misrepresented things the most harmless and simple, in order to increase the odium with which the accused were regarded. It was by combining the secrecy of their assemblies, the reports of their connections with the Saracens, the indiscreet discourse of some brethren, and the real disorders of many, that they were able to fabricate those allegations which, in times so dark, and maintained by men so experienced, were sufficient to effect the ruin of this  
mighty

mighty brotherhood. What could resist the united force of the most subtle malignity and the most atrocious cruelty, favoured by the circumstances of the period?—The author had before shewn that the episcopacy, the religious orders, and the civil powers, were hostile to this potent and wealthy society.

The writer of the historic treatise which comprizes the fourth head of this volume, and the editor of the whole, takes a middle course with respect to the Templars, which certainly is not destitute of plausibility. He agrees with the advocates of the order in condemning the proceedings of Philip the Fair, as violating every principle of justice and humanity; and in regarding the order as falling a sacrifice to the rancour, the avarice, and the jealousy of that monarch, who displayed matchless powers of intrigue in his triumph over Pope Boniface, and in his settlement of the Pontiffs within his dominions. He imputes the catastrophe wholly to this prince, whose heart was the seat of cupidity, pride, and vengeance. The process against the devoted knights was instituted with the concurrence of the Pope; and the adjudication of the affair was afterward claimed by his Holiness: but he was throughout the creature of the king, and durst not act contrary to his wishes:—the proceedings were entirely directed by the royal will.

The Knights, it is said, had given several causes of offence to the implacable Philip: the Sicilian vespers had recently taken place; they had afforded succours to the Arragonese, the authors of that revolution; they had also assisted in remitting money to Boniface VIII. during his disputes with the king; and they had been loud in censuring his Majesty's depreciation of the coin. The wealth of the order is also supposed to have tempted him, and the vastness of its amount gives the highest probability to the supposition. Some have made its annual revenue consist of a sum that was equivalent to fifty-four millions of present French money; while that of the king yielded only what was equal to two millions of the same. Matthew Paris reports that, in the whole of christendom, the knights had nine thousand manors. Their personal property was stated to have been of still higher value; for the knights acted as bankers, and enriched themselves by gains which were then held to be usurious. It was not till ten years after the confiscation of their property, that the king transferred it to the knights of St. John; and during the interval, his commissaries were in the receipt of the rents and profits. He seized the treasure deposited in the Temple, which was enormous; as also their riches in the provinces, and their move-



ables; he moreover claimed all that was due to them, and cancelled a sum of five hundred thousand livres which he himself had borrowed from them.—The author states that ‘this enterprize of Philip was an instance which powerfully affected the opinions of men on the nature of ecclesiastical property, and afforded a precedent for those seizures of it which were practised by several princes at the Reformation; by the court of France in the case of the Jesuits, and by its rulers during the late Revolution.’

When treating on the head of royal jealousy as a cause of the downfall of the order, the author observes that it possessed between ten and eleven thousand commanderies, and that the members and attendants could not be estimated at less than twenty thousand; while the amount of the affiliated, the vassals, and serfs, must have been in proportion to that of the members.

‘It must be recollected that the government was very feeble at this period; and let us contrast with this view of the order, that of the resources, prerogatives, and authority of a feudal king; let us reflect with what an eye a sovereign like Philip must have surveyed this superiority which constantly menaced him.

‘When I figure to myself what the order of the Temple could have effected at the commencement of the fourteenth century in the heart of France, where it had fixed its chief residence; when I call to mind the number of its knights, possessed of superb establishments in the provinces; the far greater number of its subjects, that of its debtors, that of the affiliated, the numerous troops which it had at command; its resources in money to hire mercenaries; its soldiery, superiour to the chivalry of Europe in bravery, discipline, tactics, and in all the arts of war; its several places which could be used as fortresses; its fleets in the East; its intelligence in every court; its connections with families of rank; the confidence of conscious power; the vigour of its internal regimen, and the active intrigues peculiar to monastic bodies;—and when we suppose this formidable society to have leagued with dissatisfied chieftains, such as, a few years later, formed confederacies against the court;—shall we not be warranted in concluding that a revolution might have been effected, fatal to the monarchical power, or to the dynasty; or at least that Philip would have been obliged to receive from the league, conditions equally hard with those which, in the preceding age, the English imposed on their monarch, and which proved the foundation of their liberties? It would seem, then, that state reasons, equally with avarice and vengeance, dictated the fatal sentence inflicted on the Templars.’

The author is also of opinion that the initiated members of the fraternity had formed the design of shaking off the authority of the king and the Pope; and that, within the order, a sect was formed to forward this design, which was connected with

with the heretics of the south of France, and which proposed to advance its purposes by their co-operation.—The reiterated proofs given in the course of the process, of a departure from the faith, of an abjuration of christianity, of a renunciation of Jesus, and of outrages done to the cross, induce him to conjecture that a part of the knights of the Temple conformed only outwardly to the catholic church, and professed a christianity freed from vulgar superstitions, and which perhaps veiled a pure deism : but that policy, the influence of the manners of the age, or some other cause, occasioned this philosophical religion to be connected with practices and forms that were gross and absurd.—The charges of a sort of sanction to certain offensive moral irregularities are also admitted by the author.

When discussing the question whether the Free Masons are descendants or successors of the Templars, he thus proceeds :

‘ On this subject, a memoir which lately appeared in Germany leaves nothing to be desired. It is certain that, before the year 1600, no embryo of the existence of Free Masons can be found. Some adepts, cabalists, theosophists, magicians, and people of the same description, who held secret meetings, may be traced to a remote period, but they were not Free Masons. The same researches make it clear that, in the seventeenth century, the Free Masons were separated from the Rosicrucians. It is very doubtful whether the latter could claim any connection with the Templars. The tale of the supposed founder *Christian Rose-croix* is universally regarded as fabulous ; the sect, it is supposed, deriving its name from the alchymical signs of the rose and the cross. The Rosicrucians were solely occupied by researches for discovering the philosopher’s stone ; and their existence was not of long duration. It is known that Descartes traversed all Germany between 1620 and 1623, in search of these fanatical naturalists, and was unable to discover any traces of them.’

The writer inclines to think that the doubt, in which he leaves the question, furnishes a presumption that he has taken the most correct and just view of the facts ; since it is not, he says, ‘ the province of philosophy to affirm or to deny, but to doubt and investigate.’ He does not dispute, he tells us, ‘ that Bayle was far from being offended with being compared to the Jupiter of Homer, who is described as the *cloud gathering* ; it being better to collect clouds like Jupiter, than to embrace them like Ixion’ :—but surely it is not less meritorious to disperse them, than it is to gather them.

In the course of this account, we observe a reflection of considerable ingenuity and striking justness. The author observes, when speaking of the contrivances of Philip the Fair to accomplish the ruin of the Templars ; ‘ It will be matter of surprise with many, to find malice so refined, and manœuvres, so

subtle, in an age so ignorant and gross : but what are we thence to conclude ?—that the art of injuring human beings, and of corrupting and deceiving them, has nothing in common with the sciences which benefit, enlighten, and improve them ; since the most barbarous nations are, in these respects, not less expert than the most civilized.'

The several compositions which form this volume, and which we have now been considering, possess no ordinary share of merit ; the matter has been neatly arranged and well digested ; the style is pleasing ; and the disquisitions will interest those who have entered deeply into the history of the middle ages, in which the dissolution of the Order of Templars figures as an event of considerable magnitude. The present is therefore a classical volume ; and, in addition to *Dupuy*, it will furnish to the general scholar all that he will require on the subject which it treats.

ART. V. *Leçons sur le calcul des Fonctions, &c.* ; i. e. Lessons on the Calculus of Functions ; a new Edition, revised and augmented by the Author. By M. LA GRANGE. 8vo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 10s. sewed.

IN the year 1799, (Rev. Vol. xxviii. p. 481.) we reviewed a work of this celebrated Mathematician, intitled a *Theory of Analytical Functions* ; and with reference to that publication, the present is intended to form a supplement and a commentary.

From the time of the appearance of Euler's labours, his *Introductio in Analysin Infinitorum*, and his Integral and Differential Calculus, no production has appeared which, for extent of subject, and for variety of matter, is in our estimation at all comparable with the Theory of Analytical Functions : it was not only abstruse and profound, but it examined, with no small share of acuteness and sagacity, the principles on which the fluxionary or differential Calculus rested. Of those principles, and of their examination, it is not our present purpose to speak. In the Review above quoted, we considered the subject fully ; and in such a manner, we flatter ourselves, as to have merited and obtained the attention of mathematicians, who look to something beyond mere rules of art and processes of computation.—The treatise before us commences, like the former, with the developement of  $f(x+i)$  into a series, as

$$fx + i.f'x + \frac{1}{2}.i^2.f''x + \&c.$$

and in the demonstration of this theorem, the author shews, as before, the connection between the coefficients, or the law  
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of their formation, the one from the other. It appears that the law of their formation is every where the same; so that, knowing the coefficient of the second term, we are able to derive those of all the succeeding terms; thus, if  $fx = Ax^m$

$$f'x = m Ax^{m-1}, f'x = m. (m-1) Ax^{m-2}, \&c.$$

and hence we obtain the usual form for the binomial theorem; knowing the term affected with  $i$ , in the developement of  $A(x+i)^m$ . How is this term known? By the first operations of Algebra, M. LA GRANGE says, when  $m$  is a number whole or fractional, positive or negative;—and beyond doubt this is true, since, in the above specified cases,  $m$  denotes some one of the known algebraical operations, an elevation, or an extraction, or a division. If  $m$  be an irrational number, then, inasmuch as  $m$  can be inclosed between rational limits that may be brought within any degrees of proximity, if  $m$  be expressed by means of such limits, may

$$A(x+i)^m \text{ be put } = A \left\{ x^m + m x^{m-1} i + m \frac{m-1}{2} x^{m-2} i^2 + \&c. \right\}$$

thus if  $m = \sqrt{5}$ ,  $m = 2.23 + \&c.$  or more nearly  $= 2.236 + \&c. = \frac{2236}{1000}$ ; and therefore, if we suppose  $\sqrt{5}$  to be repre-

sented by such fraction, the preceding form of the binomial, *in such supposition*, may be extended to such an index as  $\sqrt{5}$ . This is sufficiently intelligible: but, says the author, 'since the question is rather concerning the *form* of the derived function than concerning its absolute value in each particular case, it is proper, in order to leave nothing deficient in this fundamental proposition, to give a demonstration as general as it is rigorous.' Let us now attend to the proof:

$$(x+i)^m = x^m \left(1 + \frac{i}{x}\right)^m$$

Let  $\frac{i}{x} = \omega$ . Then it is necessary to find the coefficient of  $\omega$ , says M. LA GRANGE, in the *developement* of  $(1+\omega)^m$ , whatever be the exponent  $m$ . Now, if  $m$  be neither a whole nor a broken number, positive nor negative, or if it be not tacitly supposed to be represented by such number, it seems to us altogether absurd to speak of the *developement* of  $(1+\omega)^m$ : the *developement* of  $(1+\omega)^{\sqrt[3]{7}}$ , for instance, appears to us a term absolutely insignificant. The question is here of a very simple nature, and requires, for its apprehension, no knowledge of the abstruse parts of mathematics. Why is the developement of  $(1+\omega)^{\frac{1}{2}}$  an intelligible expression? because the index  $\frac{1}{2}$  denoting an operation, that of extracting the square root, to be performed

performed on  $1 + \omega$ , the *developement* is the *series* which results from such operation : but  $\sqrt[3]{7}$ , employed as an index, denotes no operation : nor must it be permitted to signify an operation by expressing its value in the terms of a decimal fraction, for this explanation is excluded by the author. Again ; the developement of  $(1 + \omega)\sqrt[3]{7}$  cannot mean the series from which its value, in specific cases, is arithmetically to be computed ; since the question is, according to our author, purely concerning the *form* of the developement, not concerning its absolute value. It appears then to us that, with such conditions as M. LA GRANGE has proposed, we are stopped in the very outset ; because he uses a term, which is in other respects intelligible, here absolutely without explanation.

We shall not proceed any farther in the examination of the process of deduction, since we regard the first step as faultily taken. The fertility and abundance of the author's analytical resources have betrayed him into this, we presume to call it, piece of false reasoning ; and it is not the only instance in which the very perfection of the analytical art has caused some imperfection and inconsequence in his demonstrations and inferences : for, suppose an inquisitive student to demand by what methods and reasonings it appeared that the original form  $f(x+i)$  could in all cases be developed into a series as,  $fx + ip + i^2q + \&c.$  ; then, with M. LA GRANGE, we must answer, by the *theory of series* : but, if he should not be contented with mere words, and should demand examples and particularity of explanation, we could do nothing else than exhibit the several cases comprehended under the general symbol  $f(x+i)$ , and shew how in *each case*  $f(x+i)$  could be expanded. Consequently, if the present were destined to be an elementary work, the expansion of  $f(x+i)$  ought not to have been assumed as a certain truth. We admire the *generalizations* of the modern analytic art, but we think that, in the establishment of fundamental and elementary propositions, we should guard against them with extreme and most scrupulous caution, as being likely to beguile the understandings of the most wary and acute.

In analytical science, two things are of great importance, but independent of each other : the first object of concern is the derivation of algebraical quantities, or what Waring has called *methodus deductionis*, in which no regard is had to the absolute magnitude of quantities :—the second object is the adaptation of analytical expressions to the purpose of numerical computation. If  $y$  be a function of  $x$ , then, if  $x$  be increased by  $k$ ,  $y$  becomes  $y' =$

$$y + \frac{y'}{x} k + \frac{y''}{1 \cdot 2 x^2} k^2 + \&c. \text{ whatever be the value or magni-}$$

tude

tude of  $k$ ; the connecting symbol ( $=$ ) between  $y$  and the series signifies that  $y$  is expanded by some known process into a series ascending by powers of  $k$ : but, in the termination of an algebraical deduction, or in the application of the Calculus, it becomes an object of concern to possess series or expanded forms that converge, otherwise no arithmetical value can be deduced from them. It is also important to know within what limits the sum of remaining terms, after any certain term, is contained: thus,

$$\log. x = \frac{1}{M} \left\{ (x-1) - \frac{1}{2} (x-1)^2 + \frac{1}{3} (x-1)^3 \&c. \right\}$$

but this series is useless for the mathematical computation of such a number as *seven*, since the series diverges: it is the business, then, of the analytic art to transform the preceding series into one that shall converge. Again; in the application of the fluxionary or differential calculus to curve lines, to the laws of motion, &c. it becomes essential to establish this theorem, viz. that in the series

$$y + \frac{y'}{x} k + \frac{y''}{1.2.x^2} k^2 + \&c.$$

$k$  may be taken so small that any term, as  $\frac{y^\lambda}{1.2... \lambda x^\lambda} k^\lambda$  shall be greater than the sum of all the succeeding terms; and it is the object of the ninth lesson of the present treatise to establish this theorem.—We proceed briefly to state, and to comment on, the method of the ingenious author: but, instead of the notation which he uses, we shall beg leave to substitute one that is more intelligible to the generality of English readers.

$f x$  he calls a function of  $x$ ; suppose it  $y$ ; then what he puts  $f'x$  must be put  $= \frac{y'}{x}$ ,  $f''x = \frac{y''}{x^2}$  &c.

$$\text{Now } f(x+i) = y + \frac{y'}{x} i + \frac{y''}{1.2.x^2} i^2 + \&c.$$

put  $V$  for the sum of all the terms after the second, then

$f(x+i) = y + i \left\{ \frac{y'}{x} + V \right\}$ .  $V$ , M. LA GRANGE calls a function of  $x$  and  $i$ , which becomes  $= 0$  when  $i = 0$ . Now, if by function be meant an *implicit* expression containing certain variable quantities,  $V$  ought not to be called a function:  $V$ , in strictness, is only put for a collection or parcel of terms, which in most cases are to be indefinitely continued: thus, if

$$f x = x^{\frac{r}{m}} \quad V = \frac{1}{2} \frac{r}{m} \left( \frac{r}{m} - 1 \right) x^{\frac{r}{m} - 2} i + \frac{1}{2.3} \frac{r}{m}$$

$$\left( \frac{r}{m} - 1 \right) \left( \frac{r}{m} - 2 \right) x^{\frac{r}{m} - 3} i^2 + \&c.$$

and

and we believe that no analytical expression can be assigned which, when evolved, produces such series.  $V$  then may be called a function of  $x$  and  $i$ , when by function is understood a parcel of terms similar to that which we have just exhibited.

Since  $V$ , (says the author,) becomes nothing when  $i$  becomes 0, it is clear that, by making  $i$  to increase by *insensible* degrees from zero,  $V$  will also increase insensibly from zero, either positively or negatively to a certain point; after which *perhaps* it may diminish; and consequently we may always give to  $i$  a value, such that the corresponding value of  $V$ , abstracting its sign, shall be less than a given quantity, and still less the smaller  $i$  is taken.

On this passage, we may remark that  $V$  becomes nothing when  $i$  is equal to nothing, because  $f(x+i)$  is reduced to  $fx$ : that is, strictly and logically speaking and inferring,  $f(x+i)$  is  $fx$  when  $i$  is taken away. The increase of  $V$  by insensible degrees, that is, the increase of the sum of the terms

$$\frac{f''}{1.2.x^2} \cdot i^2 + \frac{f'''}{1.2.3.x^3} \cdot i^3 + \&c.$$

$i$  being gradually increased, wants proof; and the gradual increase of  $V$  from 0 to a finite state, like the increase of the ordinate of a curve from the point at which it cuts the abscissa, is a pure fiction. There are only two cases which admit a clear and exact conception: first, when  $i$  is 0,  $V$  does *not exist* as a symbol; there can be no question or discussion concerning it: when  $i$  is an algebraical quantity, is  $V$  (that is, is the collection of terms above specified) within certain limits of magnitude, and can such limits be made to approach zero, as a term, at pleasure, by diminishing  $i$ ? We grant the proposition to be true; that is, that it can be proved: but certainly in *an elementary treatise* it wants proof. Let the mathematical reader take a simple case, that of the binomial; he will find some process necessary, before he is able to ascertain that the sum of the remaining terms after the  $m^{th}$  term, for instance, can be made less than any assignable quantity. How much more, then, is a process or proof necessary, when other and more complicated functions of  $x$  than  $x^n$  are concerned?

After this step, the author pursues his course through a process somewhat elaborate and tedious, but at last arrives at a theorem certainly of great simplicity and utility, viz.:

$$f i = f + i \cdot f' + \frac{i^2}{2} f'' + \&c. + \frac{i^{\mu-1}}{1.2 \dots \mu-1} f^{\mu-1} + \frac{i^{\mu}}{1.2 \dots \mu} f^{\mu};$$

in which form,  $f, f', f'', \&c.$  are the values of  $f i, f' i, \&c.$  when

when  $i=0$  and  $j$  is some quantity between zero and  $i$ . The mathematical reader may easily perceive the use of this theorem, in the application of the fluxionary calculus to the theory of curves.—The method of applying a series such as the preceding, or the common one,

$$y + \frac{y'}{x} i + \frac{y''}{1.2. x^2} i^2 + \&c.$$

to the determination of tangents of radii of curvatures, &c. which was first given by M. LA GRANGE in his theory of analytical functions, is extremely beautiful, and highly deserves the attention of the mathematical student. This application is only slightly introduced in the present treatise.

Lesson X. chiefly relates to angular sections. By the aid of a differential equation of the first order, the author deduces the exponential values of the  $\sin x$ ,  $\cos x$ , as,

$$\cos x = \frac{x\sqrt{-1} - x\sqrt{-1}}{2} + e$$

$$\sin x = \&c.$$

and this method of expressing the sine and cosine, the author regards 'as one of the finest analytical discoveries of the present age.' This opinion, we must confess, rather surprized us;—and the learned author bestows scarcely less commendation on the other known exponential formula,

$$(\cos x + \sin x \sqrt{-1})^m = \cos mx + \sin mx \sqrt{-1}$$

He mixes, with the demonstration of these forms, some little history, which to mathematicians is not uninteresting. By means of the developement of the preceding expression, the  $\sin mx$  and  $\cos mx$  are expressed in terms of  $\sin x$ ,  $\cos x$ , and of their powers.

In this same chapter, M. LA GRANGE gives the expressions for the  $\sin mx$ ,  $\cos mx$ , when such expressions are according to the form of a series, beginning from the simple powers of  $\sin x$  or  $\cos x$ , and ascending by the powers of the same quantity: thus, if  $p = \cos x$ , then,

$$\cos mx = + \left\{ mp - \frac{m(m^2-1)}{2.3} p^3 + \frac{m(m^2-1)(m^2-9)}{2.3.4.5} p^5 + \&c. \right\}$$

$$\sin mx = + \left\{ mp - \frac{m(m^2-4)}{2.3} p^3 \&c. \right\}$$

and the author says that he is induced to give such forms, because he knows no work in which they are united. They are however given, together with their demonstrations, in a paper written by our countryman Mr. Woodhouse, and inserted in the



the Transactions of the Royal Society for 1802; in which memoir, the values of  $\sin mx$ , and  $\cos mx$ , are obtained by finding the value of  $\alpha^x + \beta^x$  in terms of  $(\alpha + \beta)$ ; which is done by separately evolving

$$\frac{1}{1 + \alpha x} + \frac{1}{1 + \beta x} \text{ and } \frac{2 + (\alpha + \beta)x}{1 + (\alpha + \beta)x + \alpha\beta x^2}$$

and by comparing the coefficients affected with the same powers of  $x$ . The latter fraction, the denominator of which is a trinomial, is evolved by a theorem of *Arbogast*, in his *Calcul des Dérivations*. The theorem used by M. LA GRANGE for the demonstration of these forms is one inserted by him in the notes of his treatise intitled *Resolution des Equations numeriques*: but in each method, that of M. LA GRANGE and that of Mr. Woodhouse, the demonstration depends on expressing  $\sin x$  and  $\cos x$  by means of their exponential symbols. Indeed, without the aid of such exponential symbols, it seems difficult to demonstrate, generally and directly, the formulas in question. All the processes, which exclude the aid of those symbols, are either indirect or inductive,—at least, all those that we have seen.

The 12th and 13th Lessons relate to the general theory of derived equations, and the arbitrary constant quantities that are introduced by integration. The derived equations, so called in the new language of M. LA GRANGE, (for he has changed the old analytical language, both in denominations and in symbols,) mean differential or fluxionary equations, *derived* from their integral or fluent equations, which he styles *primitive Equations*. The matter of these chapters is very good, but is proposed under forms which are much too general and abstruse. A student must have made considerable progress in these very subjects, which it ought to be the object of the present Lessons to treat and discuss in their elements and principles, in order to understand the author's reasonings. We are aware that, in the investigation of many subjects, if we wish to avoid most embarrassing prolixity, abstruseness is necessary, and cannot be avoided: but then such subjects are in themselves very intricate. The contents of the 12th and 13th chapters we do not conceive to be intricate; yet the learned author is so much in the habit of considering mathematical questions, in *all their generality*, that he rarely deigns, or rather it never occurs to him, that it may *possibly* be useful and convenient, to descend, by means of example and illustration, to the level of moderate attainments.

In ascending from differential equations to integral, constant arbitrary quantities are introduced at each integration: so that,

that, for instance, if a differential equation of the second order be proposed, its integral equation, *generally proposed*, shall contain two constant quantities; and it seems to follow that every value, which satisfies the differential equation, ought to be contained in the general integral equation. The fact, however, is otherwise: since there are certain differential equations, the conditions of which are satisfied by values not comprized in the general integral equation, and, on that account, are called by the French mathematicians, *singular values*, (*valeurs singulières*.) The matter is best shewn by an example:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Let } y' \sqrt{(x^2 + y^2 - b)} - yy' - xx' &= 0 \\ \text{or } y' &= (yy' + xx') (x^2 + y^2 - b)^{-\frac{1}{2}} \\ \therefore y &= (x^2 + y^2 - b)^{\frac{1}{2}} + a \end{aligned}$$

or  $x^2 - 2ay - a^2 - b = 0$ , which is the general integral equation. Assume, now,  $y^2 = b - x^2$ ; then  $yy' = -xx'$ ; which values being substituted in the original differential or fluxionary equation, that equation becomes identical, and consequently its conditions are satisfied by the equation  $y^2 = b - x^2$ , which equation is, however, not contained in the equation

$$x^2 - 2ay - a^2 - b = 0.$$

Hence  $x^2 + y^2 - b = 0$  is called the *singular* integral equation. We shall examine the manner by which singular equations, such as the above, may be derived.

Let  $u = 0$  be a fluxionary equation, containing  $x, y, \frac{y'}{x'}$ ;  $y$  being considered as a function of  $x$ , and  $u = 0$ , the integral equation contains  $x, y$ , and a constant arbitrary quantity  $a$ , introduced by integration:

$$\text{then } (u)' = \left( \frac{u'}{x'} + \frac{y'}{x'} \cdot \frac{u''}{y'} \right) x' = 0 \quad (1)$$

in which  $\frac{u'}{x'}$ ,  $\frac{u''}{y'}$ , &c. designate the fluxionary coefficients of  $x', y'$ , when the fluxion of  $u$  is taken, making  $x$  only to vary and  $y$  only to vary. Now the proposed fluxionary equation will be deduced, if from this latter equation, and from  $u = 0$ , we eliminate  $a$ ; and this must necessarily happen, if we increase equation (1) by a term  $B'$ , provided that  $B = 0$ . Suppose, then,  $a$  to become a function of  $x$ ,  $B = \frac{u'}{a} \cdot \frac{a'}{x'} x'$ , or equation

(1) becomes

$$\frac{u'}{x'} + \frac{y'}{x'} \frac{u''}{y'} + \frac{u'}{a} \cdot \frac{a'}{x'} = 0$$

in which, in order that by the process of elimination the proposed

posed fluxionary equation may result,  $\frac{u'}{a'} \cdot \frac{a'}{x'} \cdot \frac{x'}{a'} = 0$ . This equation, then,  $\frac{u'}{a'} \cdot \frac{a'}{x'} = 0$ , gives  $\frac{a'}{x'} = 0$ , and  $\frac{u'}{a'} = 0$ : the

first gives  $a = \text{a constant quantity}$ : but the second,  $\frac{x'}{a'} = 0$ ,

gives  $a$  expressed in terms of  $x$ , and  $y$ , which will lead to the same fluxionary equation, but which must necessarily be different from the ordinary integral equation where  $a$  is constant.

Hence, from  $u=0$  and  $\frac{u'}{a'} = 0$ , eliminate  $a$ , and there results an equation containing the singular values of  $y$ . For instance,

$$\text{let } x^2 - 2ay - a^2 - b = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{u'}{a'} = -2y - 2a = 0, \text{ and } y = -a; \text{ substituting,}$$

$$x^2 + 2y^2 - y^2 - b = 0, \text{ or}$$

$$x^2 + y^2 - b = 0, \text{ the singular integral equation.}$$

We have presented this theory of singular integral equations in a manner which we hope will be intelligible to English readers: but we have entirely departed from the notation of M. LA GRANGE; who, instead of  $u$ , puts  $f(x, y, a)$ : for  $\frac{u'}{a'}$ ,  $f'(a)$ ; for  $\frac{y'}{x'}$ ,  $y'$ , &c. The new notation used by this learned author does not please us, nor does that which we have used entirely meet our approbation: but it is intelligible to the English mathematician, and we have considered it as our duty to consult his accommodation. All that may not be at first sight intelligible are the coefficients  $\frac{u'}{a'}$ ,  $\frac{y'}{x'}$  &c.

We believe, and we feel regret at the same time, that this method of notation has not been used by the mathematicians of this country: but it must, in our opinion, be introduced, when analytical science is more sedulously cultivated.

This theory of *singular* equations forms the subject-matter of the 14th, 15th, and 16th lessons. In the 17th, M. LA GRANGE directs his attention to problems dependent on such theory, and which, in part, were the cause of its origin and cultivation. *Leibnitz's* problem is first noticed, in which it was required to find the curve, the normals to which have a given relation with the parts of the axis intercepted between the origin of the abscissas and the normals.—

$$\text{Thus, since the normal} = y\sqrt{\left\{1 + \left(\frac{y'}{x'}\right)^2\right\}}$$

$$\text{and subnormal} = \frac{yy'}{x'},$$

*Leibnitz's*

*Leibnitz's* problem, under an analytical form, becomes

$$y\sqrt{\left\{1 + \left(\frac{y'}{x}\right)^2\right\}} = F\left\{x + y\frac{y'}{x}\right\} \quad \text{the symbol } F \text{ being}$$

used generally to denote the relation between the normal and the part of the axis. If this relation be the same as that which obtains between the ordinate and abscissa of a parabola, then, calling  $k$  the parameter,

$$y\sqrt{\left\{1 + \left(\frac{y'}{x}\right)^2\right\}} = \sqrt{\left(x + y\frac{y'}{x}\right)k}.$$

Hence, by proper reductions, may be deduced

$$\frac{kx - 2yy'}{2\sqrt{\left\{\frac{k^2}{4} + kx - y^2\right\}}} + x = 0$$

consequently  $\sqrt{\left(\frac{k^2}{4} + kx - y^2\right)} + x = b$ ,  $b$  being an arbitrary constant quantity introduced by integration. By reducing the preceding equation, and by putting  $k = a - \frac{b}{2}$ , we have

$y^2 + (a - x)^2 - ak = 0$ , an equation to a circle, the radius to which is  $\sqrt{ak}$ . Hence the equation to a circle, the abscissa to its centre being  $a$  and radius  $\sqrt{ak}$ , is the general integral equation to the fluxionary equation deduced from the conditions of the problem. It is plain, moreover, that every circle with an abscissa to its centre, and a radius preserving the above relation, answers the conditions of the problem.

*Leibnitz*, however, solved the problem, and deduced a parabola to be the curve required:—in fact, the curve which he deduced was formed by the intersection of those circles, each of which (as we have stated) answered the conditions of the problem: but the equation to such parabola is not included in the above general equation: it must be therefore a *singular integral* equation; and this must be obtained from the equation  $\frac{u}{a'} = 0$ , as we have already explained.

In this instance,

$$u = y^2 + (a - x)^2 - ak = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{u}{a'} = 2(a - x) - k = 0, \quad \text{or } a = \frac{k}{2} + x$$

Substitute this value in the former equation, and there results

$$y^2 - kx - \frac{k^2}{4} = 0,$$

an equation to a parabola, and which *Leibnitz* found. That mathematician deduced his solution from the consideration of the

the curve, formed by the continual intersection of all the circles that could be obtained by making  $a$  to vary; and M. LA GRANGE observes that it is a general property of all singular primitive (integral) equations, to belong to curves formed by the continual intersection of curves represented by the complete primitive equation, in making continually to vary the arbitrary quantity that distinguishes these curves, the one from the other. Of this property, the present treatise contains a general demonstration.

This chapter, on the application of the theory of singular equations, is very curious and interesting; it is interspersed with novel considerations and historical details. We are of opinion, however, that the interest of the student would have been better consulted, if certain instances of the use and application of *singular equations* had made their appearance sooner in the explication of the theory.

Lesson the eighteenth treats on equations of finite differences, on the passage from these differences to differentials, and on the invention of the differential calculus. The author shews what are the difficulties that attend this passage, and that the expression  $\frac{0}{0}$  is the symptom of the change of a function: for, according to *Euler*, the ratio between differentials or fluxions is the ratio of zero to zero.

M. LA GRANGE considers *Fermat* as the inventor of the *new calculi* (*nouveaux calculs*).—*Fermat* gave two methods for finding the maxima and minima of quantities, and for drawing tangents. His contemporaries, not apprehending the spirit of his method, did not extend it; so that for forty years his invention was stationary and barren: yet its affinity with the differential or fluxionary calculus is very close, as may be most readily shewn by the aid of an example. Suppose it were required to divide a line into two such parts, that the rectangle contained by the two parts is a maximum;—let  $a$  be the line  $x$  one part, assume the quantity  $e$ , then put

$$ax - x^2 = a(x + e) - (x + e)^2;$$

reducing this equation, and dividing by  $e$ , we have

$$a - 2x - e = 0.$$

Put  $e = 0$ ; then  $x = \frac{a}{2}$ ; or the line must be divided in the

middle, which we know ought to be the case from other methods. This mode, it is plain, resembles that in the differential calculus, in which the differential of the quantity is put  $= 0$ : quantities, which in that calculus are rejected as infinitely small, *Fermat* puts equal 0.—This method of *Fermat* was established and reduced under a more convenient form, many years after-  
ward,

ward, by the greatest of the mathematicians who preceded Newton, viz. Huygens. (See *Ouvrages de Mathématique et de Physique*, page 326.)

Fermat's method of drawing tangents is very similar to that which is above stated.

‘ We perceive, then, (says M. LA GRANGE,) that Fermat opened the route to the new calculi, by an idea truly original, but rather obscure, and which consists in introducing into the Equation an indeterminate quantity; which ought to be nothing by the nature of the question, but which is not made to vanish till the whole Equation is divided by that very quantity.

‘ This idea is become the germ of the new calculi, which have caused such considerable progress in Geometry and Mechanics; but it may be also said to have bestowed its obscurity on their principles.”

Of the present work, four chapters yet remain unnoticed, viz. on the functions of several variable quantities, and on the derived Equations; on the Equations of conditions, by which it is ascertained whether a function of any order of several variable quantities be an exact, derived, or differential function: on the Isoperimetrical problems, and on the Method of Variations. For several reasons, and chiefly for want of adequate time and leisure, we shall now give no account of these chapters, thinking that we discharge our duty better by totally suppressing all comment, than by sending into the world any such as might be faulty or imperfect; and for a sufficient excuse of our conduct, we refer to the difficulty and abtruseness of the subjects in question. At some future time, we shall probably resume and complete the present critique.

Although, however, we do not yet finish our account of these lessons, some general observations may now be offered without any violation of propriety. That the author is a profound and most learned mathematician, needs hardly to be stated. That he has also paid very considerable attention to the principles of science, and to the *metaphysique* of certain branches, we are perfectly willing to acknowledge: but we hesitate to pronounce that he is a most exact and scrupulous reasoner. The causes of his inaccuracy are to be found in the power and extent of the art which he professes: if an objection presents itself, it is instantly overwhelmed in a tide of symbols and algebraical processes: the author does not suffer himself to be detained a moment in the streight of a metaphysic refinement; he struggles, and twenty different resources are at hand to extricate him. For the verification of this general description, we refer to our preceding strictures.

This publication was intended as an elementary treatise: but it originated, unless we much mistake, in the necessity imposed

by the present Government of France on professors, of instructing the youth of that country; a scheme which forms a part, perhaps an insignificant part, in the plan of universal conquest; and, oddly as it may sound, Geometry and the theory of Analytic Functions are to lend their aid in the subjugation of England. With regard, then, to this work as elementary; we are of opinion that it is not admirably calculated for such purpose, since it is too abstruse, the demonstrations are too general, and they are not relieved nor enlivened by sufficient illustrations and examples. If the author begins to enter on and to discuss familiarly a subject, he is soon induced to follow it through all its imaginable intricacies, and to contemplate it under every possible mutation of form. This may be agreeable to the learned Mathematician, but the interests of the student demand a different procedure.

In our future additional comments, we purpose to make a few observations on the notation which, of late years, has been adopted by this great Mathematician.

ART. VI. *Souvenirs d'un Homme de Cour*, &c. i.e. The Recollections of a Courtier, or Memoirs of a Page; containing secret Anecdotes of Louis XV. and his Ministers; Observations on Women, Manners; &c. Accompanied by Notes Historical, Critical, and Literary. Written in 1788. 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 14s. sewed.

THE public is here presented with an olio, of which several of the ingredients have a high relish, and the whole is by no means to be regarded as coarse or ordinary fare: but on the side of wholesomeness we cannot say much in its behalf, since the *gout* is too high for the British palate, and too much in the style of French cookery. To drop the figure, these volumes contain essays, disquisitions, anecdotes, tales, and dialogues, the object of most of which is love, or, more properly speaking, licentiousness. Several of the pictures too closely follow nature, and some of the relations descend too much into detail, to suit the reserve in these matters, which good society in this country has hitherto imposed on itself.—A large portion of the work is devoted to the love adventures of the author. According to his own account, he became an early adept in the arts by which the affections of the fair are engaged; and he had the good fortune to be repeatedly thrown in the way of women of distinguished charms, as well of mind as of person. His success appears truly wonderful; and almost in every siege which he forms, he verifies the axiom of *Ninon de l'Enclau*.

At

At fifteen years of age, he was made one of the king's pages, and three years afterward he procured a lieutenancy in a regiment of cavalry. It is from this epoch that the series of exploits commences which is here narrated.—The writer thus states as propitious an incident as could befall a person of tender years : but it appears to us that the counsels of the Mentor either were less pure than they are here represented, or that they were only in part followed by the hero of the tale :

‘ I was so fortunate as to interest in my favour a soldier who was grown grey with experience. His sage lessons were of the highest utility to me at the opening of my new career, not only because he furnished me with maxims adapted to an infinity of circumstances, but because I learnt from him the art of engaging the esteem and friendship of my brethren in arms.—He was an amiable well-informed man, who had brought from Rome (whither he had accompanied a French ambassador,) all the amenity and politeness of the Italians. He painted in vivid colours the dangers of misconduct. Virtue, said he, is humble ; hard labour precedes it, and sometimes follows it. It is ever forbearing ; it finds a luxury in forgiving ; and it knows not how to hate. We can only triumph over vice by habituating ourselves to discipline our passions, and to debar them that initiation which they are so ready to usurp. One of the most dangerous rocks, that which most efficaciously serves them, is idleness ; this is the source of almost all the imperfections of humanity, the secret conspirator which stifles all our innate good propensities. Therefore, when study shall have fatigued you, appear in the world. Not to want society, says Aristotle, a man must be either a god or a brute. In the company of women, always so gentle, we best acquire that agreeable turn, that ease of manners, that air and carriage, which every where prepossess.’

We now find this well-catechized youth labouring to seduce every fine woman, whether maid or matron, whom he approaches ; and laying his plans so well, and pursuing them so steadily, as ultimately in almost every case to triumph. We suspect that all this was perfectly consistent with the morality inculcated by the accomplished Mentor. Indeed, during the whole of the last century, in France, a person of the above description passed in the world as a good amiable creature, and was not only well received but respected in society.

The anecdotes here related are such as might be expected to fall within the knowledge of a man in an inferior situation ; they are of a personal rather than political nature ; and they do not elucidate the sources of history by tracing events to their primary causes. The writer charges Louis XV. with avarice in his private capacity ; and we are told that, careless about public expenditure, as about every other state concern, he narrowly inspected the money transactions which affected



him individually. He could not even bear to lose at play with *La Valliere* and *Goutant*. When unfortunate, he perceptibly murmured, and, to conceal his ill-humour, he would eat the wax from the tapers. The minute attention which he paid to his secret finances, which were managed by *Bertin*, proves how much he was infected with this failing. A thousand traits shew that nature had rather formed him to be an attentive farmer-general, living in the midst of pleasure and abundance, than to be governor of a great empire. A friend of *Piron* very well described him in his parody of an epitaph made at the time of his death by a celebrated academician :

*Ci git Louis, ce pauvre roi,  
On dit qu'il fut bon, mais à quoi ?*

Here lies poor Louis ; he was good, they say ;  
Was he indeed ? But good for what, I pray ?

Among other anecdotes, we meet with the following :

' The late *M. de Clermont Tonnerre*, bishop of Noyon, was a man of unmeasurable pride, and pushed his claims beyond all bounds. When preaching in his cathedral, he was once heard thus to commence his sermon ; *Listen, thou Christian mob, (Canaille) to the word of the Lord.* At another time, disturbed by the whispers of the inattentive, while he was celebrating mass, he turned towards the assembly, crying out : *Really, Gentlemen, judging by the noise with which you fill the church, one would conclude that it was a lucky and not a prelate of rank who officiated.*—It was this Bishop who, when seized with a dangerous illness, sent for his confessor, and made known to him his fears of hell. The courtly priest replied, " You are very good, my Lord, thus gratuitously to terrify yourself : but God will think of it twice before he damns a person of your high birth." The bishop, it is said, was well satisfied with the answer, and very much admired it.\*

The author's powers of declamation may be judged from the speeches which he puts into the mouths of personages who feign a desire to be admitted into a select society, in order to be separated from the general commerce of mankind :

" We have come from a distance, for the express purpose of soliciting admission into your fraternity, the sublime renown of which is spread far and wide. It will be most grateful to us to be among you, to unite with you in preaching these eternal truths ;—folly reigns every where under the banners of error ; pleasure and virtue are for the most part opposite ; love and sincerity are rarely found together ; envy, hatred, and calumny are sisters ; reason pardons wrong, but wrong never pardons reason ; folly and intolerance mutually engender each other ; honesty is a mere cover ; politeness a

\* See an epitaph founded on this Prelate's excessive pride, *M. R. Vol. lxxix. p. 642.*

only a varnish, often laid on a false colour; great parts almost always mislead; frankness is a sort of medal, of which indiscretion is sometimes the legend, and idleness the exergue: at a monastery, all repose in brutal slumber; invention never shews itself there; nature is seen clad only in the garb of winter; felicity is expected only in heaven; eternal uniformity and *ennui* prevail in those seclusions."

Though the writer shews considerable ability in detailing the progress of mutual regard between lovers, and in describing the sentiments and acts which bespeak and accompany it, we by no means think that he is happy in his portraits of attractive females. One of the most perfect of his heroines is thus delineated:

'While with a pencil not less bold than delicate, *J. J. Rousseau* traced the portrait of his *Sophia*, aided by the brilliant colouring of a voluptuous fiction, he believed that he sketched only an effigy that was purely ideal. Fascinated nevertheless by this effect of a divine dream, he transmitted it to susceptible and ardent minds, adjuring them at the same time never to attempt to copy this model of perfection, produced in the crisis of a poetic fever. But how would this philosophical critic have hastened to rectify his opinion, if *Adèle*, more ravishing than the *Venus of Praxiteles*, more agile than the *Nymphs*, the new rival of *Terpsichore*, had suddenly appeared before his eyes, with that nicely balanced and elegant carriage, with that undefinable graceful *je ne sais quoi*, which is derived from the harmonious forms of beauty, from the animation of her soul, and the ardour of her mind? Without doubt, *Rousseau*, astonished to have discovered his celestial *Sophia* in the object which taught me to love, would precipitately have fallen at her feet and adored her.'

A very lofty panegyric is pronounced by the author on the *Duchesse d'Aiguillon*:

'She was at once an object of esteem and attachment. She was distinguished by her attainments; she knew four languages; and men of letters consulted her taste, profited by her information, and regarded her as an able guide in the pursuit of knowledge. She imparted instruction with matchless grace, and conversed at her ease with the most eminent geniuses. Her suppers were frequented by persons in high situations, by distinguished strangers, by retired ministers, and by literati. At these entertainments, rank was not regarded, but degrees of talent were alone considered. In this circle, pedantry, and ill humour with the usages of the world, were unknown. A free course was allowed to conversation, and each had an opportunity of dilating on those topics to which he had principally paid attention.—At these repasts, which resembled that of the seven sages, happy sallies were made, and original ideas were thrown out: they were frequented by *Montesquieu*, *Hénault*, *Bernis*, *Duclos*, and other celebrated persons. Under the protection of the axioms of the *old*, some of the principles of the *new* philosophy were here first started.'

It was the opinion of this distinguished lady, that amusement was necessary to youth, in order that its features and its form might attain the agreeable appearance which arises from innocent pleasures; and she maintained that no action of moment was performed by us in youth, that did not materially affect our future character.

‘To frequent the company of relations is well; but to visit our real friends is still better; since in the one case we shew respect to hereditary claims, and in the other to those of merit. A list of visits of mere ceremony implies that we have time to waste, and forms the amusement of the idle. The rage of engaging vulgar applause bespeaks inferior powers, of which it is attempted to make the best. They who can humour the caprices of others are the ablest masters of the art of pleasing. To become silent, before we have satiated with our discourse, gives us the right to renew it with the same precautions. What is *ennui*? A moral indigestion, produced by the monotony of situations.—Gustavus III. king of Sweden, denominated this lady the living journal of the court and the city, of the Academy, and of the provinces.’

An adventure of a young French knight, here detailed, exhibits traits which deserve notice:

‘He had been a lieutenant in a regiment which had been reduced, and he was allowed a pension of two hundred livres till he could be replaced; which, with another two hundred as an ancient pupil of the royal military school, formed the whole of his income. He was also decorated with the order of our Lady of Mount Carmel, or of St. Lazarus. He learned to limit his wants within his narrow means. Full of zeal, of spirit, and of resources, he was desirous of employing the interval of exemption from service in examining the armies of the principal powers of Europe: but with finances so contracted as his were, he would have found it difficult to fulfill that project, had he not been aided by a sort of philosophy which soared far above common ideas. He resolved to travel on foot, with a havresac on his back. He proceeded in this way through the duchy of Wirtemberg, and the electorate of Bavaria, and arrived at Vienna, where he introduced himself to the French Ambassador, by whom he was civilly received, and invited to dine on a day fixed. The Minister, informed of his mode of travelling, advised him to observe secrecy on that head, while he resided in the Austrian capital: but he gave his excellency to understand that he was not to be catechized, and he was allowed to follow his own discretion. When the appointed day came, he appeared at the dinner of the Ambassador, who, full of attention, presented every delicacy to the officer, which was uniformly declined. “You have no appetite,” (said the minister) since you refuse every thing that I offer to you.” —“It is because I have finished my dinner, (the other replied) soup and beef are all that I require. If I took any thing more, the ordinary dinners which my small means will allow me would become unpleasant, and my health would suffer by it. We diminish ourselves

selves by increasing our wants, and we aggrandize ourselves by contracting them." The intelligence which he displayed induced an Austrian commander to invite him to view the manœuvres of the imperial troops, of which proposal he was glad to avail himself, since this was the principal object of his journey.

After a sufficient stay at Vienna, in the course of which he made many observations on the formalities of the court, and still more on the Austrian military tactics, he took his leave of the Ambassador, who gave him letters to the French Minister at Berlin. Several Frenchmen of rank, who were quitting Vienna for the Prussian capital at the same time with our chevalier, pressed him to accept of a place in their carriages: but his resistance was not to be overcome. "I have made it a law to myself," replied he, thanking them, "to travel on foot as long as my strength will hold out. In this mode, objects are less liable to escape an attentive eye; and the art of judging well of them is only to be purchased with labour"—The Ambassador at Vienna had given very flattering accounts of the young officer to the Minister at Berlin, if we may judge from the agreeable reception which he experienced.

The Prince of Prussia, to whom the French minister had spoken of the original and interesting character of the lieutenant, was desirous of seeing him: but it was with great difficulty that he was persuaded to be presented. The Prince, however, loaded him with kindness, and offered to announce him to the king: but he intreated him to suspend this last favour, it being less his desire to be made known to the hero, than to admire his trophies, his works, and his genius. The prince, in compliance with his intreaty, only solicited for him the monarch's permission that he might attend the grand manœuvres at Potsdam, which was obtained. On the day when the manœuvres were to commence, he presented himself at Potsdam; and the hussars who kept the ground permitted him to pass. He stood alone in the midst of the immense plain, when three superb chargers were brought to him from the Prince Royal, with the desire that he should mount that which pleased him best. He begged to decline the offer: but the equerry observed to him that he could not without a horse get out of the way of the troops during their manœuvres, that the king's orders were express that no pedestrian should be admitted, and that he must mount or quit his station. The chevalier replied that, since matters were so, he would retire whenever it was proper. The prince, informed of the determination of the chevalier, imparted it to the king, who ordered that the troops should regard the French officer as an obstacle in their way, and consequently avoid him whenever they passed over the ground on which he stood.

Never had the chevalier seen troops so brilliant, nor so admirably disciplined. Intelligence seemed to pervade the ranks of the veteran bands which Frederic had conducted to glory. It appeared as if the royal hero felt pride in exhibiting their admirable evolutions to the French observer. Those of the cavalry above all excited his astonishment; the columns, advancing in full gallop with incredible speed, were able to make an opening when they approached him, as if he

had been some terrific gulph. Cool and intrepid in the midst of the dusty whirlwind, and charmed with a spectacle so instructive, he was alive only to admiration.

‘He was at last persuaded to be introduced to the king. When in the presence, Frederic said, “They have informed me that you were desirous not to see me, though you do not hate me.”—“Sire, I feared to look a great man in the face, and my littleness sought concealment.”—“These qualities do not belong to us. I am informed of your worth, and I would gladly be of use to you.”—“With a strong mind, and few wants, your Majesty is not ignorant that one enjoys the tranquillity of the sage.”—“Yes, but I know your situation. You are free, trust your destiny to me, and accept of a company of dragoons in my service.”—“Ah! Sire, I fall at your feet with gratitude, but what would your Majesty think of me, if, after my education had cost the king my master ten thousand livres, I renounced his service? A younger brother from Gascony, I have nothing more noble to give him in discharge of my debt, than a devotion which knows no bounds, zeal, and courage.”—“These sentiments honour you in my estimation. Well, be at ease, I will obtain permission for you to remain in my service till you are restored to your rank.”—“The more your Majesty abounds in generosity, of which it is impossible that I should be worthy. the more am I emboldened to state that I am prompted by real delicacy not to avail myself of your powerful influence. It is under the triumphant eagle of Prussia, under him who rendered it such, that admiration would fix me, if I were not a Frenchman: but, born with this fair title, I ought to preserve it free even from suspicion.” Frederic applauded this virtuous resignation.

At the end of three weeks, the chevalier one morning imparted to the French minister the low state of his finances. He had scarcely touched on this point, before the ambassador thus thought within himself; “behold the pretended philosopher, like many others, is come to the end of his part; he is about to apply to my purse, let me deliver him from his embarrassment by opening it to him.”—“Do you chance to be in want of money?” the minister suddenly asked him.—“Money! Oh! no, I have yet twenty crowns, I have wherewith to support me for two months: but they will be gone, and then I shall have nothing. A year’s pension is in arrear to me; can you write to the minister of war, and get it paid to me at Berlin. If this can be done, I shall be able to extend my travels to Russia; if it cannot, I must return to France.”—“Why should I not pay it to you in advance, and wait to be reimbursed?”—“I return you thanks, but that would have the appearance of a loan, and I never accept any. If they do not pay me, I must return to France; that will be all the inconvenience.” The ambassador wrote; and when the time necessary in order to receive an answer had passed, he feigned that he was ordered to pay it from the funds of the embassy; the chevalier received the small pittance which he claimed, and set out for the North.

These

These volumes certainly abound in interest and information, but some parts of them are extremely exceptionable; they possess unequal merit, and exhibit more of learning than correctness, more of display than of taste.

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ART. VII. *Oeuvres Inédites, &c. i. e.* The inedited Works of the late President HÉNAULT, of the French Academy, and of that of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. 8vo. pp. 385. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Conchy. Price 8s. sewed.

DURING the present dearth of eminent writers in France, it has become fashionable to ransack the repositories of the departed, and to usher into light every lurking manuscript which bears the stamp or image of a celebrated name. That the collection here announced is genuine, we are willing to believe on the faith of internal evidence; but we certainly could have desired more abundant and more satisfactory proofs of its authenticity, than the editors have condescended to state in their very laconic advertisement. In another respect, also, these gentlemen are chargeable with a degree of negligence for which we cannot easily devise an apology. With the means of information in their hands, they have omitted several important particulars in the life of the author, whose posthumous writings they have committed to the press; and whose valuable and elegant acquirements were worthy of more detailed commemoration. Without presuming to supply all the chasms in their narrative, we shall avail ourselves of such scanty documents as lie within our reach, and mark the principal circumstances which we have been able to collect relative to the history of an individual who held a distinguished rank in the republic of letters.

*Charles Jean-François Hénault*, son of *Jean-Remi Hénault*, seigneur of Monssy, a king's counsellor, and a farmer general, and of *François Pontbon*, daughter of an opulent merchant of Paris, was born at Paris on the 8th of February 1685. The progress of his juvenile studies, including a course of geography and history, under *Claude de L'Isle*, father of the celebrated geographer, was uncommonly rapid; at the same time that it was enlivened and adorned by the society of numerous and respectable friends, and by occasional and successful courtship of the muses. From his early years, he was observed to blend acuteness and facility of apprehension with an enviable sweetness of disposition. During the two years which he passed in the society of the oratory, and which he afterward pronounced to be the happiest in his life, he frequented

quented the theatre without deserting the church, and alternately perused *Massillon* and *Racine*. At the age of sixteen, he assumed the habit of the order, and composed a funeral oration on the Abbé *De Rancé*, of austere memory. As *Massillon*, to whose inspection he had submitted this essay in pulpit eloquence, was observed to smile at the first part and to yawn at the second, its young author, with a degree of resolution which has few examples, committed his performance to the flames, and took leave of a pursuit in which he perceived that he was not formed to excel.

In 1706, M. HÉNAULT, though he had not attained the legal age, was admitted a Counsellor of Parliament; and, in the course of the two succeeding years, he obtained the prize of eloquence proposed by the French Academy, and that which was announced by the Society of the Floral Games at Toulouse. In 1710, he was appointed President of the first Chamber of Inquests; a situation which induced him to direct his attention for several years to the study of law in its various departments. Having accompanied his friend, the Count *De Morville*, on his embassy to the Hague, his conciliatory manners secured the respect and attachment of some of the principal members of the government of the United States, and particularly those of the Grand Pensionary *Heinsius*; who, in the President's company, could descend from the lofty pretensions of stern republicanism.

On the demise of Cardinal *Dubois*, in 1723, M. HÉNAULT was elected to supply his place in the French Academy.—The first edition of his Chronological Abridgment of the History of France appeared in 1744, though the editors of the present volume very erroneously assign 1768 as the date of this valuable publication; which has since undergone so many impressions, and has been translated into Italian, German, English, and even Chinese.—In 1755, he became an honorary member of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres of Paris; and he had been previously received into those of Nancy, Berlin, and Stockholm: but the appointment which most sensibly gratified his feelings was that of Superintendant of the Queen's Household, which he had solicited for a friend, and which her majesty very generously bestowed on himself. The lucrative emoluments of this office he shared with Madame *De Coubert*, the widow of his predecessor.

With the view of improving his health, which was never vigorous, M. HÉNAULT had often recourse to the waters of Plombières, and sometimes to more protracted excursions. In one of these last, he made the tour of Switzerland, in company with his friend the Marquis *De Paulmy*, who had been appointed ambassador to the Helvetic government.

Monsieur

Monsieur Lebeau, his eulogist, relates that in 1763 he was threatened with sudden dissolution, that he prepared his mind for the event with becoming composure, and that he recalled the saying of Madame De Sévigné,—“*je ne laisse ici que des mourans.*” When, next morning, to the joy of his friends, he was pronounced to be out of danger; ‘I now know,’ said he, ‘what death is; it will no longer be new to me.’ He survived this attack only seven years, a period of his life which, like all the rest of it, was mild and tranquil. Grateful to Heaven, and resigned to its decrees, he contemplated his gradual decay with a presence and a firmness of mind, which sufficiently proved that his extraordinary gentleness of temper never degenerated into weakness. He expired on the 24th of December, 1770, in the 86th year of his age.—In 1714 he married Mademoiselle le Bas de Montargis, whose father held some considerable office under the crown. This lady died in 1728, without leaving him any children: but he adopted those of his sister, and educated them as his own.

Besides the well-known work to which we have alluded, and another historical performance, of which an account is given in the thirty-fifth volume (p. 460.) of our New Series, this worthy and learned judge likewise composed various smaller pieces, both in prose and verse. To him, too, the public are indebted for the *Henriade*; since, at the expence of a *ruffe*, he snatched it from the flames, to which its author in a fit of peevishness had too rashly consigned it.

As a pleasing illustration of the promptitude and delicacy which characterized this author even in trifles, we may mention that, when the queen addressed some polite expressions to him in the P. S. of a letter written by the Duchess of — and subscribed the single word *devinez*, the president replied by the following quatrain:

“*Ces mots, tracés par une main divine,  
Ne m’ont causé que trouble et qu’embarras :  
C’est trop oser, si mon cœur les devine,  
C’est être ingrat que ne deviner pas.*”

‘To finish the portrait of this extraordinary man, (says M. Lebeau,) I shall borrow a pencil as delicate as the features of his character. The following is the idea exhibited of him in his life time, by a lady still more distinguished by the graces of her mind than by her elevated rank. “The president Hénault unites to great knowledge equal ease and refinement of manners. He belongs to the first classes of society; his wit is sprightly and amiable; and his conversation is fraught with ingenious turns, without degenerating into pointed conceits. In no talent is he deficient—the grave, the gay, every thing suits his sphere. He is one of those who derive the greatest benefit from the two ex-  
tremes



tremes. Such is he in the world. His modesty, which forms the basis of his character, had long thrown a veil over the depth of his studies; and the prosperous circumstances of his friends had long deprived them of any opportunity of appreciating the fidelity and the sensibility of his heart. The excellent works, which he has condescended to publish, have at length revealed the extent of his information, and we are now too fully aware of the generous ardour with which he cherished his unfortunate friends."

It is now time to advert to the contents of this posthumous volume. Though, from their multifarious complexion, we cannot attempt to characterize many of them individually, we may remark generally that, if some are trifling, and if others, from the oblivion of local circumstances, have ceased to charm, all bespeak an elegance of manner and a cultivated taste. The editors have judiciously classed them under four divisions, namely, 1. *Marius at Cirta*. 2. *Fugitive Poems*. 3. *Reflections, and other Morsels in prose*. 4. *Notes collected as materials for the Chronological Abridgment of the History of France*.

1. *Marius at Cirta*, a tragedy, was first published under the name of *Dcaux*; and is here given with the alterations and improvements of the real author. The story chiefly turns on the loves of young Marius and Arisbe, an African princess betrothed to Hiempsal, king of Numidia; and on the stratagem by which Marius, the father, pretends to be an emissary of Sylla, and his own assassin. The action is rather slowly prolonged: but the incidents at length thicken with such rapidity, as somewhat to trespass on probability. The frail princess, who is instrumental in effecting the escape of her lover and his father, answers the king's reproaches by stabbing herself to the heart.—In the management of the piece, most of the rules of the French drama are strictly observed: but life and warmth are wanting to impart the true tragical effect. Even the style is sometimes tame, and, in the concluding act, is obviously less polished than in the preceding four. Detached passages, however, may be selected, which would not discredit the muse of *Racine* or *Voltaire*. Such is the account which Marius gives of his proscription; with the exception, perhaps, of a few lines which border on inflation:—such, too, is the spirited scene in which Hiempsal detects Marius;—and such are these lines, so truly expressive of the generosity of disposition which is ascribed to Arisbe:

‘ Oui, Seigneur, tout vous rit ; sorti de cet état,  
Vous reprendrez bientôt votre premier éclat ;  
Vous verrez la fortune à vos vœux asservie,  
Marquer d’ heureux instans le cours de votre vie :  
Puisse votre bonheur égaler mes souhaits !

*Qu' à vos vertus le ciel mesure ses bienfaits !  
Que vos fiers ennemis, terrassés par vos armes,  
Eprouvent à leur tour de mortelles alarmes !  
Que votre nom vainqueur parcoure l'univers,  
Arisbe est satisfaite, elle a brisé vos fers.'*

2. The fugitive pieces are precisely such as we might expect from a polite French scholar, who sought to beguile more serious avocations by occasional intercourse with the lighter muses; and they please us rather from the consideration that a man high in the law department, and who had acquired deserved celebrity by his patient and accurate investigation of chronological details and the complicated catenation of events, could descend with ease and elegance into the walks of sportive fancy and literary *badinage*, than from any intrinsic excellence which they may be allowed to possess. On this account, we could have preferred a selection to the indiscriminate publication of the whole. Among the few which are of general application, or which indicate peculiar neatness or felicity in the execution, we may notice the first *Eclogue*, which deviates from the hackneyed form of pastoral compositions, and is perfectly consistent with truth and nature; the mock ballet, intitled the '*Triple Hecate*;' the lines written under the portrait of the Countess D——; and the *Toilette of Venus*, which, as it has much classical grace and amenity, we shall quote in the original:

*' Bel Astre de la nuit, arrête ton flambeau  
Sur l'isle de Cytbère :  
Viens seul être témoin d'un spectacle si beau ;  
Au fond d'un bois gardé par l'ombre et le mystère,  
Vénus dort sur un lit que Flore a préparé :  
Les zephyrs sur son sein folatrent à leur gré,  
Le repos lui prête des armes,  
Il répand sur ses charmes  
Un doux air de langueur du grand jour ignoré :  
Les traits moins animés ont des forces nouvelles,  
Elle semble en dormant appeler les plaisirs.  
En voyant tant d'appas, ses compagnes fidèles,  
Les Graces mêmes ont des desirs.*

Ariette.

*' Craignez, jeunes amours, d'éveiller votre mère,  
Voler doucement dans ces lieux ;  
Joignez-vous aux Zéphyr, et d'une aile légère,  
Augmentez de ces bois le frais délicieux ;  
Volez sans bruit, craignez d'éveiller votre mère ;  
Son repos vous est précieux,  
Tout votre empire est dans ses yeux.*

“ Et vous, oisiveux, dormez plus tard sous ce feuillage ;  
Ne chantez pas le lever du soleil,  
Vénus repose en ce bocage,

Pour commencer vos chants, attendez son reveil.”

L'ombre fuit, et déjà l'épouse de Céphale,  
Aux portes d'Orient voit briller sa rivale ;  
Le soleil qui la suit recommence son tour,  
Et va rendre aux mortels les soins avec le jour.  
Déjà pour le lever de Vénus tout s'apprêta,

Les Grâces, en habit de fête,  
Elèvent un autel et superbe et galant,  
Où la beauté suprême  
Se doit en s' éveillant  
Rendre hommage elle-même.

On voit de tous côtés accourir les Amours,  
Pour offrir leur secours.

L'un tient cette glace fidelle  
Qui ne reproche rien à la belle immortelle ;  
L'autre assortit des nœuds de rubis et de fleurs ;  
Un autre en l'essayant apporte la ceinture,  
Tissu mystérieux plus fort sur tous les cœurs  
Que la plus brillante parure.

“ Mais le ciel s'embellit, on sent un air plus doux ;  
De cent nouvelles fleurs la terre est émaillée :

Amours, approchez-vous,  
Vénus est éveillée.

Les Ris, les Jeux, les Grâces, sont autour,  
Et préparent leurs soins pour la mère d' Amour.

“ Grâces, qu'allez vous faire ?

C'est un soin téméraire  
De parer la beauté ;  
Un éclat emprunté  
Lui nuit au lieu de plaire.

“ Vénus n'a qu'à sourire,

Et l'univers soupire :  
Souvent même un regard  
Qu'elle jette au hasard  
Suffit pour son empire.”

Cependant il est temps de quitter ces climats,  
Dieux, vous devez votre présence au monde ;

Choisissez avec tant d'appas,  
Qui veulent vous des Dieux, de la terre, ou de l'onde ?

“ Partez, et donnez des fers  
Au puissant Dieu de la Thrace ;  
Qu'en faveur de l'Univers,  
Vos yeux lui demandent grâce.

“ C'est trop laisser son grand cœur  
Dans les bras de la Victoire,  
Acquiescer pour son bonheur  
Les promesses de la Gloire.”

3. The Prose Reflections, which are wholly detached, are more select than numerous, and more sententious and refined than easily convertible to the purposes of life, or the improvement of manners. We cite a few examples.

'The quarrels of lovers may be compared to those thunder-storms which augment the verdure and beauty of the country.

'*Annui* is the termination of love, as old age is that of life.

'In spite of all that has been said against physicians, we must at least allow that they possess experience, which we want. According to *Bautru*, they bear the same relation to other men, in respect of diseases, that the resident blind in Paris bear to blind men from the country, in regard to their acquaintance with the streets.

'I have observed that an author's first productions, which have induced the public to expect something greater, are often his best works. *La Motte* never surpassed his *Europe Galante*, nor *Doutches* his *Issé*. Progressive excellence is the lot of few indeed. *Lully* finished with *Armide*, and *Racine* with *Athalie*.'

4. The historical notes appear to much greater advantage in the finished work; and they seem to have been introduced, along with the 'Epistle of Psyche to Love,' and the 'Temple of Chimeras,' formerly published, in order to make out the volume.

In conclusion, we have to regret that few of the inedited effusions seem to have received the author's finishing hand.

ART. VIII. *Géométrie du Compas*, &c.; i. e. Geometry of the Compass, by L. MASCHERONI; translated from the Italian by A. M. CARETTE, Officer of Engineers. 8vo. Paris.

THIS is a very ingenious and entertaining performance, affording an agreeable relaxation to the accomplished Mathematician, and admirably calculated to rouse and to exercise the powers of invention in young persons. It has also an additional recommendation; it is capable of being practically useful, and of rendering to the arts considerable assistance; which will be best understood after we have given a short account of the object and the matter of the work. We regret that the necessity of introducing diagrams, if we would make ourselves clearly understood, confines us to a short detail only, and to the explanation of the most simple problems; such problems, however, will be of the most general concern, and most on a level with moderate attainments. The mode of explanation, which we shall adopt, founded on a particular manner of marking the points of division in the circle, will, we hope, render us intelligible, without the aid of diagrams.

The, object, then, of this publication is to enable the mathematician and the artist to perform a variety of problems with

with the compass only: for the *rule, la règle*, on which, in all nice practical operations, we cannot much rely, is excluded. The problems are such as these. It is required to divide the circumference of the circle into 4 equal parts with the compass only: to divide it into 8 equal parts; into 12, into 24, into 240 equal parts. Again, to divide it into 5 equal parts; into 10, into 20 equal parts. In other problems, it is required to divide an arc into two equal parts; a line into two equal parts, to find a mean proportional between two given distances, &c. &c.

We shall now explain the method of solution in some of the simplest cases; and first we shall shew how to divide a circle into 4 equal parts.

Describe a circle, and let its centre be called C: with the same opening of the compass, set one foot in any point of the circumference, suppose it to be somewhere in the top, and call this point  $b'$ ; towards the left, place the other foot in a second point of the circumference, and call this point  $b''$ ; proceed in the same way, and successively mark on the circumference points  $b'''$ ,  $b^{iv}$ ,  $b^v$ ,  $b^{vi}$ : which points, it is well known, are the angular points of an equilateral hexagon inscribed in a circle. It is plain that  $b'$ ,  $b^{iv}$ , are opposite points, at top and bottom, the centre lying between;  $b''$ ,  $b^v$ , are opposite points, and so are  $b'''$ ,  $b^{vi}$ . Now make the compass stretch from  $b'$  to  $b'''$ ; and then, from  $b'$  as a centre, describe a circle: with the same radius and centre  $b^{iv}$ , describe a circle intersecting the former to the left of the direction of  $b'$   $b^{iv}$ , without the original circle: call this point of intersection I; stretch now the compasses from I to C, and CI is the proper radius for dividing the circle into 4 equal parts: for, call the radius of the original circle 1, then  $b' b'' = 1$ ,  $b' b^{iv} = 2$

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore b' b''' &= \sqrt{\{ (b' b^{iv})^2 - (b' b'' )^2 \}} \\ &= \sqrt{\{ 4 - 1 \}} = \sqrt{3} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Again, } CI &= \sqrt{\{ (bI)^2 - (b' C)^2 \}} = \sqrt{\{ (b' b'' )^2 - (b' C)^2 \}} \\ &= \sqrt{\{ 3 - 1 \}} = \sqrt{2} \end{aligned}$$

= chord of a quadrant.

Next, let it be required to divide a circle into 8 equal parts.

From the point I, with radius  $1 = b' b'$ , cut the arc of the original circle between  $b'$  and  $q''$  ( $q''$  being the quadrant point between  $b''$ ,  $b'''$ ) at a point  $o'$ ; then the quadrant is divided into  
two equal

two equal parts at  $o''$ , or  $b' o''$  is the side of an equilateral octagon inscribed in the circle: for  $(I o'')^2 + (C o'')^2 = 1^2 + 1^2 = 2 = CI^2 \therefore I o'' C = \text{a right angle} \therefore o'' C I = 45^\circ = o'' C b' \therefore \&c.$   
 —From  $o''$  as a centre, with radius  $= 1$ , cut the original circle between  $q''$  and  $b'''$  at a point  $d$ : then  $q'' d = o'' d = o'' q'' = \frac{p}{6} - \frac{p}{8} = \frac{p}{24}$  ( $p = \text{circumference}$ ): hence the chord of  $q'' d = \text{chord of } \frac{1}{24}$  circumference: hence, we have a method of dividing the circumference of the circle into 24 equal parts, and consequently into 12 equal parts. —  $b'' o''$  also equals the 24th part of the circumference, since it  $= b' b'' - b' o'' = \frac{p}{6} - \frac{p}{8} = \frac{p}{24}$

Suppose, now, that it were required to divide the circle into 5 equal parts.

From centres  $b''$ ,  $b'''$ , and with a radius  $= CI$ , describe two arcs of a circle, intersecting one another at a point  $I'$ , which will lie between  $C$  and  $b'''$ : stretch the compasses from  $I'$  to  $q''$ , and  $I' q''$  is the chord of an equilateral pentagon inscribed in a circle:—for conceive a perpendicular ( $b' p$ ) drawn from  $b''$  on the line extending between  $b'$  and  $b'''$ , then  $b'' p = \sin 60^\circ = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \therefore$

$$I' p = \sqrt{\{(I' b'')^2 - (b'' p)^2\}} = \sqrt{\left\{2 - \frac{3}{4}\right\}} = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2} \therefore$$

$$\text{since } C p = \frac{1}{2}, I' C = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2} \therefore I' q' = \sqrt{\{(I' C)^2 + (q' C)^2\}} \\ = \sqrt{\left\{\frac{3-1}{2} + \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2}\right\}} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{5-\sqrt{5}}{2}\right)} \text{ which, it is known}$$

from trigonometry, is the side of an equilateral pentagon. Hence we may divide, with the compass only, the circle into 20 equal parts, and consequently into 10: for with a radius found by the last operation, cut the circle between  $b''$ ,  $q''$ , in a point  $\pi''$ , the  $n \pi'' q'' - b' \pi'' = \frac{p}{4} - \frac{p}{5} = \frac{p}{20}$

Or, since, as appears from the foregoing investigation,  $I' C = \frac{\sqrt{5}-1}{2}$ ,  $I' C$  is equal to the chord of an equilateral decagon inscribed in a circle: whence, without the division into 20 parts, we may immediately divide the circle into 10 equal parts.—By methods not dissimilar, we may proceed to divide the circle into 30, 120, or 240 parts.

After the circle has been divided into any number of equal parts, as  $m$ , it may be divided into a number of parts  $\frac{m}{2^n}$ ,  $n$  a

whole number: for a problem is given by which any arc may be bisected.

One of the books of this treatise is intitled, *on Roots*; and the author shews, by very simple processes, that the roots of all numbers, from 1 to 10, may be easily exhibited by means of the compass only. Indeed the roots of some of the numbers have, in fact, been exhibited in the method which we have just described: thus  $Cb' = \sqrt{1}$ ,  $b'q = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $b'I = \sqrt{3}$ ,  $b'b'' = \sqrt{4}$ . To exhibit  $\sqrt{5}$  from  $b'$ ,  $q$ , describe two arcs intersecting each other at a point  $I'''$  without the circle, then  $b'I''' = \sqrt{(4+1)} = \sqrt{5}$ ; and with no great complication of construction may we proceed to exhibit the roots of other numbers. Besides the problem already mentioned on this subject, the author shews how to find the root of any fractional number, and the halves of the roots of whole numbers from 1 to 25.

In the remaining books, great variety of curious problems are inserted, such as, to find the centre of a given circle; to find in a circle an arc very nearly equal to the radius; to *double the cube* by approximation, &c.: but we wish to refer the mathematical reader to the work itself, since our enumeration must, unless we are prodigal of time and paper, be incomplete.

The present treatise, in addition to the fund of speculative entertainment which it contains, must, in many instances, we are convinced, be practically useful. It is sufficiently obvious that division by the compass alone is, in practice, much more exact than division by the rule and compass. We are rather curious to know what our mathematical instrument-makers would say respecting the methods, considered as practical methods, of Signor MASCHERONI. He seems to have been enabled to advance in his route of investigation, by a perusal of the account of the methods of dividing astronomical quadrants.

' It happened to me accidentally, (says he,) to read the manner in which Graham and Bird, in England, divided their great astronomical quadrants. The quadrant made by Graham, for the observatory at Greenwich, has not only served as a model for the greatest part of those that have been made since, but, on account of its precision, had been regarded by astronomers as one of the best, till Ramsden's instruments appeared. I then perceived that the division of this celebrated machine had been made by the aid of the compass only, without the rule: and nothing can be more interesting than the description of the means employed by that artist, in this long and ingenious operation. I shall not here enter into the explanation of the motives that caused the *rule* to be excluded: but they may easily be imagined by those who are conversant in operations of this kind. To demon-

strate in general the superiority of the use of the compass over that of the rule, when it is required to describe lines with precision, which are to be examined by a microscope, it is sufficient to say that, with a rule ever so short, it is almost impossible to be sure of the precision of all the points traced out; so difficult is it to make the line rigorously a right one throughout the whole of its length. Were the rule extremely good and straight, practitioners know that the tract of a line carried along the edge of a rule almost necessarily induces some uncertainty of parallelism, in the movement of the axis of the point which marks, or of complete application of this point to the edge of the rule. The compass is not subject to these two inconveniences; it is sufficient if its opening be fixed, and its points well defined: placing one of them in a point taken for a centre, the other describes an arc with all possible exactness. In reading the description of Graham's method, I remarked that there occurred four difficulties—.

The author then proceeds to state these difficulties, and the means adopted in order to obviate them.

We have very little doubt that the lovers of mathematical studies will be obliged to us for our recommendation of this curious treatise. It would, however, in our opinion, have been equally interesting, if it had been less long: for it requires considerable application and resolution to make the circuit of the whole book: few will do this; and few will be entirely guided by the order and arrangement of the author's demonstration. To verify the constructions will furnish agreeable labour to the mathematician.

The constructions might, we think, have been rendered much more easy of apprehension: the letters marking the points of division, or intersection, have no reference to the particular divisions, or intersections; nor can we feign a connection between them. We do not mean to propose our method of marking the divisions as perfect, but a method similar to it ought to have been used by Signor MASCHERONI, and we are persuaded that it would have been of great convenience: thus  $b'$  marks the first point of the inscribed hexagon,  $b^{iv}$  the fourth and opposite point,  $b' b''$ ,  $b'' b^{iv}$ ,  $b''' b^v$ , &c. are chords of 120, &c. If such a method of marking points of division were carefully constructed, we are convinced that many of the simple problems might be made perfectly intelligible, without the aid of a diagram; and even if we use diagrams, such a method would be any thing else rather than an inconvenience.—Whether, in their very curious and nice divisions of quadrants, &c. mathematical instrument-makers will be able to derive any aid from the constructions of the present treatise, (as we have already stated,) we are unable positively



to determine: but we think that architects and military engineers might be considerably assisted by them; that is, might be enabled to draw plans, &c. with greater ease and expedition than at present. Be these things as they may, the author has undoubtedly opened a new route, and his inventions are highly interesting to those who love and cultivate pure science.

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ART. IX. *Nouveau Voyage en Espagne, i. e.* New Travels in Spain. 8vo. pp. 350. Paris, 1805. Imported by de Conchy. Price 6s. sewed.

THOUGH we always peruse an anonymous book of travels with some degree of suspicion, we have closed the present volume with impressions by no means unfavourable to the author's talents and means of information. His observations, which are generally offered with impartiality, and in a spirited and easy style, may afford both pleasure and instruction to those who are strangers to the prior publications of Swinburne, Townshend, and Fischer, with none of which this French journalist appears to be acquainted. His criticisms are avowedly directed against the more loose and superficial relations of *Bourgoing* and *de Langle*. The erroneous statements, the offensive flippancy, and the licentious sentiments of the latter, he exposes with unsparing, and sometimes with coarse and undignified castigation. Of the expediency of thus dragging again into public notice a seducing and dangerous work, which was fast hastening to oblivion, we must be allowed to entertain our doubts. The writer, we are willing to believe, acted from the most honourable motive: but the cause of virtue and religion could not have greatly suffered, if he had quietly abandoned the proscribed volume to its merited fate;—a fate which would sooner have overtaken it, had not the old French government, in their supreme wisdom, condemned it to be burned by the hands of the executioner. No reader of sense and discernment, who is desirous of becoming acquainted with the present state of Spain, will rest satisfied with the lively but flimsy pages of the *Marquis de Langle*, and no well-disposed mind can ever be induced to relish his pernicious maxims. If, then, we deduct the author's animadversions on this ephemeral writer, and the information which had been already conveyed by travellers of character and name, little that is new or important will remain behind. We shall therefore hope to be excused from entering into any detailed or formal analysis of the work.

This traveller made his entry into Spain by the *Bidasoa*, the passage of which was then (1804) defended by batteries.

From

From that of San-Carlos, he surveyed the neighbouring military positions; which, in the last differences with France, had been intrusted to the comand of Don *Ventura Caro*, an experienced and gallant officer.

‘In this same battery,’ said my guide, ‘the General’s lady took her stand, in all affairs of posts. With a telescope in her hand, she followed with her eyes all the motions of her husband, who exposed himself to the enemy’s fire like the meanest soldier. The noise of twelve twenty-four pounders, which were there, there, and there, (pointing to the particular spots,) and the bombs which often killed our people, never distracted her attention—she was always at her telescope. Ah! what a noble lady she was—She always gave us cigars, and she visited the wounded in the hospital.—What courage! what energy of character! This woman loved her husband, braved the dangers of battle, and from what motive? From that of ambition? Impossible.—Celebrity?—She aspired to none.—She might see the destroying bullet carry off the object of her affections: but she was also wholly relieved from the anxiety of surprise, and her mind was agitated by the alternate and rapid contentions of fear and happiness.’

Proceeding by St. Sebastian, the journalist bestows some merited compliments on the excellent state of the roads, and presents us with these remarks on the national character of the Spaniards:

‘Diametrically opposite to the French, the Spaniard of to-day is the same as in the time of Charles the Fifth: he retains the same customs, and the same manners. So far from boasting of being the ape of Europe, the *serroum pecus* of English manners, he is ambitious of being at all times consistent with himself, and of preserving and transmitting to his posterity the habits of his forefathers. Even the national costume has undergone only a trifling alteration; the principal officers of the country, as the judges, alcades, and corregidores, preserve the same dress as that which was worn by those of the kingdoms of Castille, Léon, and Arragon, before their union under the same crown. The native of Andalusia, Valencia, Catalonia, and Navarre, has his particular dress, to which he is attached, and which he associates with the valour and the glory of his ancestors. Even such of the young men as are styled *curutajos* (coxcombs), when they shape their coat according to the Parisian fashion, still contrive to adapt it to the Spanish taste. This *Gallomania*, which has spread over most of Europe, has hitherto made little progress in Spain; and, in spite of the crowds of Frenchmen which have inundated that country, since the peace of 1795, no visible change has taken place in any thing but dress. I mean not to assert that Madrid contains no subscribers to the *Journal des Modes*: but they are very few.’

In an early part of the tour, we arrive at Madrid; where we are compelled to stay till materials have been collected for more than two-thirds of the volume. Many of the subjects

are of a general nature, and they are treated without any regard to order or connection. The only chapter, however, which we could wish to see cancelled, is that which approaches to a defence of the inquisition. One act of intolerance can never justify another; and it is idle to allege that a society which tyrannizes over the consciences of individuals, and over the freedom of private conversation, should not be abolished, with every mark of infamy and reprobation.

It results from the author's inquiries into the military resources of Spain, that its peace establishment is 59,796 infantry, 12,000 cavalry, 5,400 artillery, and 1,400 miners. During war, the infantry is augmented to 98,200, and the artillery to 6,000. There are, besides, 2,100 provincial grenadiers, and forty-two regiments of organized militia, which are computed at 32,000 men. The Prince of the Peace, generalissimo of the land forces, has introduced some wholesome reforms into the military department, and has established a regular staff, which was formerly unknown in the Spanish army. The command of the troops is vested in the generalissimo, seven captains-general, one hundred and three lieutenant-generals, one hundred and sixty-two *maréchaux-de-camp*, and two hundred and sixty-three brigadier-generals. The pay of a private soldier is equivalent to 5*d.* English *per* day. There is a school for the artillery at Segovia, and one for the engineers at Zamora.

The Spanish navy, two years ago, was reckoned at fifty ships of the line, and fifty-seven frigates. According to *Jabellanos*, an economical writer, the Pyrenean districts might supply the royal dock-yards with building timber for several centuries. The vessels constructed at the Havannah are of cedar, which possesses the convenient property of admitting a shot without splintering.

If from temporal we pass to spiritual warfare, we find a muster of 69,170 secular, and nearly 100,000 regular clergy. As the grandees and the church share almost all the lands in the kingdom, we need not question the strength of their influence on the people at large. Most of the prelates, however, according to this author, have urgent claims on the esteem and affection of the public.

They are all rich, from the great possessions attached to their sees: but their wealth is that of the poor. Instead of gilded carriages and footmen covered with lace, you find at their palace-gates none but the wretched, who wait for the hour of the distribution of alms. Indigent females, though of a respectable situation in life, and unfortunate men, who have been plunged into distress by unforeseen accidents, crowd their anti-chambers, and never depart unrelieved;

lieved; "for, throughout Spain, the prelates are the principal benefactors in their districts, and all of them expend a large portion of their revenues in alms \*."

"In the season of affliction, when the wrath of heaven weighed down a kingdom formerly "most christian," the faithful priests, who fled from unavailing martyrdom, found comfort and assistance in the charity of these virtuous prelates. What insensible heart would not have melted into pity in the palace of the bishop of *Orense*; — a palace converted into religious barracks, occupied by three hundred ecclesiastics, the bishop confining himself to the narrowest apartments, eating in common with those who were proscribed for the faith, supplying them with all the necessaries of life, defraying the board and lodging of those whom his mansion could not contain, and all this without diminishing his ordinary charities to the poor of his diocese!

"And you, respectable archbishop of Toledo, cardinal *Lorenzana*, you now enjoy the recompence promised to the just. This prelate, during the whole time of the persecution, not only employed a very considerable revenue, but contracted debts, that he might lodge and maintain the French ecclesiastics in his dioceses; for the archbishop of Toledo is, at the same time, bishop of Madrid.

"The same cardinal-archbishop, out of his own revenue, repaired the Alcazar of Toledo, an antient residence of the Gothic kings, and, in this palace, founded establishments for the support of the indigent, from infancy to death. Two hundred children were here educated with care; seven hundred poor people were here employed in the weaving of silk; and here the aged found a hospitable asylum.

"Should I not make particular mention of the bishop of Cordova, who, in the dearth of 1804, the principal cause of the maladies which afflicted southern Spain, distributed among his poor diocesans twelve thousand rations of bread daily? — These were his equipages — these were his retinue."

In the midst of sensible and accurate information, we sometimes stumble on a passage which, if detached from the context, would tempt us to believe that the author was no mean proficient in irony. We have already pointed to his pleading in extenuation of the inquisition. In his chapter on roads, he seriously questions the utility of free communication from one part of a country to another, and regrets that they enable *three treacherous classes of society* to travel at their ease. These classes are, 1. *The learned, who are, in general, an immoral race, and preach pride and irreligion*; 2dly, *cosmopolite merchants, who are swayed by self interest*; and, 3dly, *travellers, who are a prey to ennui or laziness, or who have incurred disgrace in their own country*. — The witticism of the *cordon bleu*, which is borrowed without acknowledgement from a collection of *anas*, is

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\* *Tableau de l'Espagne Moderne*, vol. iii. p. 31.

rudely applied to *Voltaire*, *Rousseau*, and *d'Alembert*, who, whatever may have been their failings, have essentially contributed to the entertainment and the improvement of their species. —A little farther on, he gravely maintains that the newspapers of a country should be entirely at the disposal of the government. From such narrow and exploded sentiments, we gladly pass to the house of feasting :

‘ In Spain there are no formal invited parties, except at stated periods of the year, as on the name-day or birth-day of the master of the house, or on the marriage-day of his eldest son, (*May-orasgo*.) These days are celebrated not by a dinner, as in France, but by a *refresco*, or afternoon’s repast —All the relations and guests repair in the evening to the house of the entertainer. In a saloon richly decorated, and well lighted, the women take their places on one side, and the men on the other. There is no blending of the sexes, nor any general conversation; every one whispers to his neighbour. After a short interval passed in this manner, valets de chambre, and footmen in full livery, arrive in procession, and hand a silver plate to each of the guests. When every body has been thus provided, the same servants return, with large silver salvers loaded with glasses of water, *espongados*\*, and chocolate. This first offering is generally ill received, as the party reserve themselves for the second. The same salvers, then, again make their appearance, but charged with ices, sherbet, and iced waters of all kinds, as lemonade, orangeade, &c. &c. sweat-meats, biscuits, and cakes. This distribution lasts longer than the first, because each salver makes a pause before each individual, who never leaves his place, in order to prevent confusion; and, as in such a great variety of dainties, each requires time to chuse according to his taste; this second scene is long. A third opens, but it is merely a repetition of the second, and destined for those whom one service of ice could not satisfy. At the fourth, nothing is seen but baskets full of paper wrappers, of all sizes, and each guest helps himself according to his views. The fifth scene at length commences, and displays to the admirers the same salvers and baskets profusely heaped with cakes, comfits, biscuits, and every conceivable variety of sugar-plumba. Each person concerned fills his wrappers, of which the number is usually determined by that of his acquaintances, who ought all to partake of the *refresco*. When all have made up their parcels, a last service is presented; but only for the sake of form, for it goes off untouched, and is destined for the domestics, who repeat in the anti-chambers what has just been transacted in the saloons: they too eat their ices and fill their wrappers. While the servants are thus intent on the booty, the company in the saloon mingle together, and make ample amends for the silent constraint to which they had been subjected during the ministration of the refreshment. An hour thus

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\* A sort of light, sugared, and perfumed bread.

passes away, and each carriage conveys with its owner the spoils of the entertainment. The Parisian will be astonished when he is told, that such a meeting breaks up without a dance; and he will even venture to deem it ridiculous: but every country differs with respect to manners and customs; and in Spain, those who frequent the polite circles are not desirous of contending with opera dancers. The Romans also had no such ambition. With them it was reckoned disgraceful even for women to excel in dancing or singing. With us those females are extolled to the sky who are eminent in these frivolous talents, which are never acquired in perfection but at the expence of good morals.' —

'I esteem the *refrescos* as infinitely superior in point of magnificence and cordiality to the English *rouls*, the merit of which consists in silently jostling one another in apartments too small for one half of the people invited. The end is the same, but the means are very different and less agreeable.'

The next chapter presents us with a short, but animated eulogium on the Prince of the Peace. The parallel of the French and Spanish national character is likewise drawn with ability and pleasing effect, though the author obviously inclines to act as the panygerist of the latter, even at the expence of the former. As this, however, is by no means the sin which most easily besets his countrymen, we shall not too anxiously reduce his colouring. We cannot easily credit the assertion that a single Spaniard of the lowest extraction can hardly be found, who cannot both read and write. This alleged fact is contrasted with a ludicrous instance of ignorance in a deputy of the legislative assembly of France; who, in comforting his countrymen for the loss of their colonies, exclaimed with emphatic exultation, 'Have we not sugars from Orleans?'—Because the Spanish smugglers and highwaymen volunteered their services in war, our traveller remarks, with the air of modest triumph, that, when England is rising in a mass to resist with vigour a formidable foe, we may be permitted to doubt whether *her highwaymen have abandoned their posts in order to contribute to the national defence.*

The most interesting details in the concluding chapter refer to the contagious disorder, which lately raged with such fatal effect in the south of Spain. The most successful remedies were found to be emetics, lemonade, and, above all, extreme cleanliness. Many of the infected were also cured by sea-bathing, or by drinking a glass of sea-water in the morning, or rubbing their bodies with oil. Col. *Reding*, who commanded his Swiss regiment, then in garrison at Malaga, is said to have preserved his men by causing their shirts to be dipt in oil every morning.—In the rapid account of Catalonia, we find nothing sufficiently original or attractive to detain us any longer. We

shall

shall therefore conclude our brief report by intimating our suspicion that the author is a zealous member of the church of Rome; and that, though endued with talents and other valuable properties, he has not entirely liberated himself from the trammels of bigotry, and cannot view with unconcern the impending ruin of a fabric which once was imposing, but now is tottering to its foundations.

ART. X. *Zoologie Analytique, &c. i. e.* Analytical Zoology, or a Natural Method of classifying Animals, rendered more easy by the Help of Synoptical Tables. By A. M. CONSTANT DUMÉRIL, Doctor and Professor in the Parisian School of Medicine, Member of the Royal Medical Academy of Madrid, &c. 8vo. pp. 376. Paris, 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 7s. sewed.

THE mode of distributing the productions of nature according to coincidences, or family resemblances, is always eligible, when it can be commodiously adopted. Linné and Jussieu laid the foundation of botanical arrangements constructed on this principle; and the plan has been successfully prosecuted by M. Lestiboudois, in his *Botanographie Belgique*, by Lamarck, in his *Flore Française*, and by Decandolle, in his improved edition of the latter work. Similar but more imperfect attempts, in the department of zoology, may be traced in de Putte's *Guide du Naturaliste dans les trois règnes de la Nature*, and in Brunnick's *Fundamenta Entomologie*. In particular sections of the animal kingdom, the same basis of classification has been adopted by Cuvier, *La Cépède*, Latreille, and other eminent interpreters of portions of animated nature. Availing himself of their previous labours, and of the fertile resources of his own genius and observation, M. DUMÉRIL extended the applications of the principle to all the known tribes of animals. The original sketch of his plan, which was annexed to the first volume of Cuvier's *Lectures on Comparative Anatomy*, consists merely of tables and the generic names; whereas the present publication contains not only a series of 197 tables, which may be regarded as the abbreviated explanations of the classes, orders, families, and genera, but statements illustrative of each, on the opposite page. The nine classes of Mammalia, Birds, Reptiles, Fishes, Mollusca, Crustacea, Worms, Insects, and Zoophytes, are severally characterized; as are the respective orders, families, and genera of each: the whole forming a neat and well regulated method, including the most recent discoveries, and evincing the author's facilities of consulting the rich repositories and the distinguished naturalists of the French capital.

M. DUMÉRIL's exposition of the mammalia, comprizing fourteen families, is a modified and improved analysis of the method published by Professors *Cuvier* and *Geoffroy*. The birds, distributed into six orders, and twenty-three families, are treated nearly according to the divisions established by *Cuvier*, in his *Elementary View of the Natural History of Animals*. In his arrangement of the reptiles, the author has judiciously profited by the joint assistance of *Brongniart*, *Laurenti*, *Schneider*, *La Cépède*, *Daudin*, *Latreille*, &c. and has ranged them under four orders and six families. His eight orders and thirty families of fishes are taken, with little variation, from those of *La Cépède*. The mollusca are divided into five orders and three families, chiefly according to the views of *Cuvier*; and the crustacea into seven families, agreeably to the doctrines of *Latreille* and *Lamarck*.

'The insects are illustrated,' says the author, 'according to a method quite new, and which has occupied me upwards of twelve years. The orders are those of *Degeer*; and some other divisions are borrowed from *Geoffroy*, *Linné*, *Fabricius*, *Olivier*, and *Latreille*. A considerable coincidence will, no doubt, be remarked between the labours of the last mentioned naturalist and mine: but, if we have frequently arrived at the same divisions, it was by very different roads, and almost at the same time, as may be proved by our works, and by the various memoirs which we have read in learned societies. For the rest, I willingly admit M. *Latreille's* great superiority in all that constitutes the true naturalist; namely, in his knowledge of species, which he has studied with very particular attention.'

In this class, the orders are eight, the subordinate orders four, and the families sixty. The division of worms into two families, and that of the zoophytes into six, have been instituted chiefly in conformity with the ideas of *Cuvier*, *Lamarck*, and other very respectable authors. It is but justice to add, that many new divisions and genera are here established for the first time, without any separate mark of distinction.

Although we cannot conveniently transfer a few of the tabular forms into our pages, we shall exemplify the author's manner of commenting on them, by transcribing his observations on No. 36.

'The family of the *Brevipenna* may be at once distinguished from the *Gallinaceæ*, by the shortness of their wings: but, as this circumstance likewise denotes the bird's inability to fly, and as the form of its feet is incompatible with swimming, we may, moreover, conclude that they all walk quickly, and that they are in some measure confined to certain regions of the globe, especially to dry situations in the plains. In fact, the history of all these birds seems to prove this: but the form of their bill and their particular habits vary much, according to their genera.

'None



'None of the species of this family feed on grain; owing, most probably, to the form of their bill, or the structure of their tongue. Most of them are fond of fruit, and of small animals. They swallow their food without chewing it.

'All these birds are natives of the most southern regions of the globe. They live, for the most part, solitary. The females of some of the genera sit on the eggs with the greatest care; while those of others deposit them in holes which they excavate in the sand, and leave them to be hatched by the heat of the sun.

'Though this family includes four very distinct genera, it must be allowed, that they possess no common properties, except the enormous size of their bodies, and the shortness of their wings. The Cassowary comprehends two species, but each of the other genera has only one.

'As geological researches would induce a belief that some species of birds have perished from the earth, we may presume that those allied to this family were of the number; since, in the class *Mammalia*, annihilation seems to have overtaken the *Pachydermous* tribes, which possessed few means of extricating themselves from that great catastrophe of which the traces are visibly imprinted on every part of the globe.

'1. The *dronte* (*didus*) is a bird little known, which is said to have existed in the Isles of France and Bourbon, where it is no longer to be found. Its long bill resembles that of the pelican, with the terminating claw of the cormorant.

'2. The *touyou*, (*rhea*) a bird of Chili, seems to occupy, in respect of form, a place between the ostrich and cassowary.

'3. The *cassowary* (*cassuarus*) has a bill nearly resembling that of the alcedrids. The feathers of these birds present great peculiarities. In the Indian species, they resemble horse hairs; while, in the Australasian, the shank of each of them is separated into two branches, with distinct beards, and flexible at the extremity. This last species has no bony head piece.

'4. The *ostrich* (*struthio*) is the only known bird that has but two toes. It also seems to be the largest species, and the only one that does not hatch its eggs; in which last respect, it may be considered as approaching to the class of Reptiles.'

From this and various other instances which might be quoted, the discerning reader will perhaps perceive that the general explanations are sometimes too concise to be of much real benefit to the student. We must likewise beg leave to dissent from the superfluous multiplication of new terms, which can only serve to impede the adoption of the system with which they are connected. M. DUMÉRIL would have greatly added to the practical value of his synopsis, if he had annexed to each table the names of the authors who have most successfully treated of its contents. Lastly, we could have wished that he had reversed the order of his materials, by beginning with the zoophytes, and ascending progressively to the more complex animal

animal structures, till he arrived at man, the most perfect organized Being within the sphere of our knowledge.

We cannot dismiss this analytical view of the animal kingdom without bestowing our commendation on the neatness and correctness of the typography, and on the quantity of accurate information which is furnished at a reasonable price.

ART. XI. *L' Ancien Clergé Constitutionnel jugé par un Evêque d' Italie*, i. e. The late Constitutional Clergy judged by an Italian Bishop. 8vo. pp. 48. Printed at Lausanne.

**A**MONG the Roman clergy in the several countries in which the French arms triumphed, were some who considered the titles of the constitutional Bishops as canonical, and who regarded them in every respect as brethren; and of these *S. Benedict Solari*, Bishop of *Noli* in the state of Genoa, was conspicuous. A Synod, it seems, had been held at Pistoia,—during the time, we presume, of its being in the hands of the French: but what was the object of this Tuscan assembly, or what were the decrees which it sanctioned, is not here stated, and is a matter about which we are not informed. It appears, however, that the council had incurred the displeasure of Pius VI., for we learn that the Inquisitor of Genoa had sent to the dioceses in that state, the brief of the Holy Father against that synod; with orders to the Bishops to make it public. The Bishop of *Noli* opposed the measure, and denounced it to the senate; and he afterward stated the grounds of his conduct in a memorial, which he intitled *Motivi dell' opposizione, &c.* Acting a part so agreeable to the Great Nation, we may readily suppose that he would not be disturbed by the government of Genoa.

An answer, however, to the *Motivi, &c.* in two large volumes 8vo. was published by Cardinal *Gerdil*: who, besides animadverting on *M. de Noli's* opposition to the papal instrument, censured very strongly the correspondence which the prelate had carried on with the constitutional bishops of France. It appears that the Bishop of *Noli* had been invited to the second council held by that body and their clergy; and that in his answer he had recognized them as christian brethren, and addressed them in the language of christian charity: a conduct which drew on him the resentment of all the ultramontane party, and which also was one of the principal grievances of which the Cardinal complained in his publication. To this work, *M. de Noli* published a reply intitled *Apologia di Fra Benedetto Solari dell' Ordine de' Predicatori, Vescovo di Noli, contro il fu Emin. Cardinal Gerdil.* Gênes. 1804. In 8vo. 226 pages. This tract

tract was divided into three parts, the first of which treated of the prelate's conduct towards the French constitutional clergy, and contained his reasons for admitting the validity of their orders. The present pamphlet is an analytical abridgment of that first part of the Bishop of *Noli's* performance; and we suspect that it has proceeded from the pen of the eloquent and genious Abbé *Gregoire*, *cidevant* constitutional Bishop of Blois.— Though we feel no great interest in the matter in dispute, still the pamphlet merits attention, since it elucidates history, and shews the state of the human mind among the Italian clergy. The combatants on this occasion prove themselves to be very conversant with ecclesiastical history, and with the canon law; and the writings of *M. de Noli* shew that the usurpations of the court of Rome are as well known and as much felt by catholic prelates, as by protestant divines.

The points which the Bishop of *Noli* labours are, that the constitutional clergy were never cut off by the Pope from the communion of the church; that they never seceded from it themselves, but always professed their adherence to the see of Rome; and that their orders must be valid, since they received them from persons competent to confer them.—We collect that the Pope pronounced these orders not to be valid, and that the parties appealed to a general council. The ablest canonists, it seems, maintain that the Pope's sentence in matters of this nature is not definitive, and that the party has a right of appeal; and the authority of *Cajetan*, among a great many others, is here adduced to establish the point. The institution, granted to the constitutional Bishops named to the new sees under the *Concordat*, without any retraction or absolution, proves, it is said, the legality of their antient titles.

In answer to the objection that the constitutional Bishops were not in the communion of the Pope, the Genoese Prelate observes that ecclesiastical communion arises out of 'that charity which unites all the faithful in Jesus Christ; out of the profession of the catholic doctrines which unite them in the same belief; out of the unity of sacrifice, the communion of prayer, and the subjection of the faithful to their lawful pastors, the head of whom is the Pope; and no person who does not violate either of these bands is without the communion of the church.'

That the simple refusal of communion, by the Pope, does not annihilate the orders of the persons so treated, is here shewn by the production of a variety of instances: but there needed no proof, because the church holds orders to be indelible. We have understood that the Pope cannot release a priest or bishop from his vows, except in the case in which compulsion has been

been used to force him to contract them; and it was on this ground that *Talleyrand*, now so celebrated as a statesman, was set free from his clerical engagements by the present Pope: it being a notorious fact that the young *Perigord* was obliged by his family, against his inclination, to take orders.

This Italian prelate maintains in church government the doctrines of the gallican church, and the primitive and imprescriptible rights of episcopacy. The rights of Popes, Primates, and Metropolitans, as distinct from those of mere Bishops, he founds on the authority of councils.

‘The constitutional clergy undertook not to write to the Pope, except in his character of the visible chief of the church, in order to testify their resolution to preserve the unity of the faith, and to adhere to the communion of the church.’ The Bishop of *Noli* maintains that this provision excludes no fit and lawful engagement between the Pope and the Bishops; and that it only prevents those arbitrary relations which must be ever regarded with jealousy by sound policy, and which have been the inventions of the decretalists.

The oath of submission to the Pope, enjoined on Bishops by the Romish ritual, was also prohibited to the constitutional clergy. This engagement imposed on Bishops, the Italian prelate states, was of modern introduction, and not at all essential to the episcopal character. He admits the concurrent but denies the exclusive right of the Pope to nominate and institute to episcopal sees. There is no occasion, he says, to dispute the episcopal rights of the emigrant Bishops, in order to render valid those of the constitutional prelates; since nothing was more common in the primitive days than for one church to have two or more Bishops at the same time. To prove that a Bishop may be ordained and instituted independently of the Pope, the author refers us to the ordination of Paul and Barnabas, in which not a single apostle was concerned; and to the commands given by Paul in his epistles to Timothy and Titus to ordain Bishops in every place in which they should be wanted;—and the apostle, he says, makes no mention of papal bulls.

We think that this pamphlet is calculated to engage the attention of the curious. Questions which relate to ecclesiastical government, and the boundaries of clerical authority, equally interest the civil powers and the sacred order. The reasonings of the Italian prelate do not seem to have suffered by the translation; which indeed is not likely to have been the case, if it was executed by the celebrated *Gregoire*. We have heard that this latter prelate, who is only known to us by his writings, several of which have delighted and instructed us, stood firm against the

ecclesiastical arrangements introduced by *Bonaparte*; and we collect, from the title page of this tract, that he is now in *Switzerland*. We infer, then, that in consequence of his opposition, he either deemed it prudent to quit France, or was ordered to withdraw himself from its territories. The dissent of this constitutional Bishop occasions a loss to the new hierarchy, which, in the present dearth of able and respectable theologians in France, cannot be compensated. His talents and his activity had procured respect for the temporary spiritual constitution, under which he had exercised his episcopal functions.

**ART. XII.** *Les Constitutions de L'Empire Français, &c. i. e.* The Constitutions of the French Empire, preceded by an Historical Account of all the political Forms of the French Government under the three royal Dynasties; of the Military Life of *Napoleon Bonaparte*, to the 18th of Brumaire; and of the several Causes which, during the consular Government, have introduced the Establishment of the first Imperial Dynasty. Second Edition. Augmented with a Picture of the French Empire, organized in all its Parts and of the Code of cantonal and electoral Assemblies. By DUBROCA, Bookseller. 12mo. Paris. 1804. Imported by De Boffe. Price 3s.

**I**N the introduction to the present political character of the French nation, the topics so particularly detailed in this title page are treated with well-managed conciseness; and the object at which the writer aims, namely that of rendering palatable the transition from a popular to a monarchical government, and the elevation of *Bonaparte*, is dextrously pursued. The measure, it is here contended, flowed from the unanimous wish of the nation; being regarded as the only basis on which its security, prosperity, and glory could safely repose. Disconcerting on this event, which is by no means the most marvellous among those that render our days so extraordinary, M. DUBROCA observes that,

‘When a new family ejects by violence the reigning dynasty, seats itself by main force on the throne, and defends the possession by terror, proscription, and punishment; such a revolution entails consequences the most lamentable, and forms a calamitous epoch in the history of a people. But when a nation, brought to the very brink of destruction by a degenerate, corrupted, and despised dynasty, invites *him* to reign who has been able to rescue it from danger, to save it from its own excesses, and who has become at once its legislator and deliverer: then is the revolution beneficent; reason, policy, and humanity consecrate it; the applause of posterity will sanction it; and the *era* of its accomplishment is one of the most grand in the history of a people.’

This

This is intended for a picture of the recent revolution in the government of France. If it cannot be denied that its inhabitants are under obligations to their present ruler, it is by no means correct to represent him as taking up a sceptre which had dropped from the hands of the bearer through misconduct. The French sceptre was wrested from a well intentioned monarch in a moment of frantic delusion; and it was held up by him who now grasps it, to a people who had renounced royalty, and instituted a democratical government: a people who not only had themselves abjured monarchy, but had insulted every state which submitted to that form of administration. If, in one view, *Bonaparte* has raised the grandeur of the French nation, and surrounded it with glory, he has in another humbled and degraded it beyond all example; he has either terrified or cajoled it into a public unreserved renunciation of every doctrine and principle that were so lately its pride and its boast, the incitements of its heroism, the avowed objects of its victories and its triumphs. If they once arrogated too many privileges and rights, and if they have been able to retain too few, it may still be insisted that they have profited something by the change which has cost them and the world so much. The scanty list of these gains is given by the author, preceded by an extravagant and pompous preface:

‘ I have now gone through my rapid sketch of the events which have introduced the first dynasty of French Emperors. We shall search history in vain for political measures marked by features equally magnificent, and legalized by benefits equally great. When *Pepin* and *Hugh Capet* mounted the throne, the government underwent no amelioration. All that the chief of a new dynasty accomplished was to fix the crown in his family, and the public oppression rather grew than diminished. On the accession of *Napoleon Bonaparte* to the empire, a new political organization fixes and insures forever the liberties of the French nation, and establishes powers which guarantee them against the abuse of authority. All the wishes of the people have been realized; its representatives have a voice in the imposition of taxes; the feudal regimen has been abolished to its last traces; every distinction unfavourable to virtue and talents has been abrogated; liberty of conscience has been respected and established: the prince governs by virtue of the laws, and in the name of the laws; we have a sufficient guarantee for the security of the subjects at home, and of national consideration abroad.

‘ With the existence of the empire and the maintenance of its institutions, are connected the dearest interests of the French nation. Religion, restored, will not have occasion to invoke heaven to terminate civil wars. Justice, to which has been consecrated a code enriched with all the happy conceptions of antient and modern jurisprudence, will liberally dispense its blessings. The finances will improve in consequence of the order and regularity introduced into

their management. The armies, knowing whom they are to obey, will no longer fear that they may be divided by ambitious leaders, and opposed the one to the other. The government itself, in consequence of the security which hereditary power inspires, will be the more gentle in its proceedings; and it will be less rigorous as having fewer obstacles to surmount, and fewer dangers to combat. In fine, all the citizens will be able with confidence to give themselves up to their private pursuits; no public disquietude will divert them from their occupations; the key stone of the arch has been inserted; the work of man is finished; the rest must be left to the operation of time, which always strongly cements that which has been soundly constituted.'

The late extraordinary achievements of *Bonaparte* will go much farther, we suspect, in strengthening the fabric of the imperial government, than any felicity of structure which belongs to it. To comment properly on the preceding extract would require a volume;—we shall only observe that the author ought to have noted the time, when the wishes of the people became so moderate as to be satisfied with such a mockery of liberty as that which they now enjoy. How those can be called representatives whom the people do not appoint, and who are debarred the freedom of speech, we profess not to be able to comprehend. The merit of abolishing the feudal system, with its injurious exemptions and distinctions, belongs in no degree to *Bonaparte*. A more liberal toleration in some respects, than is allowed in this country to Dissenters, was legalized in France, previously to the abolition of the old government. On the side of liberty, *Bonaparte* has given not a particle to France, but he has taken much from her: the merit, however, must not be denied him of having raised her from a very low posture to unprecedented consideration: of having suppressed the factions, healed divisions, and of having put an end to many disgraceful excesses which had grown out of the revolution. The civil code is a work of prodigious merit; and the system of judicial administration is not ill adapted to the character of the country and the habits of the people. It might by slight alterations be rendered admirable.

Have the glory, the triumphs, and the acquisitions, which the French arms have earned, in any degree advanced the happiness of that people? Is there any probability of their speedily realizing any share of it? Had they duly availed themselves of the dispositions of Louis XVI., what horrors would they not have avoided; what agitations and calamities would have been spared the world; and would they not have escaped their present abject vassalage! France, without being the mistress of Europe, would have been one of the first powers in it;  
and

and the government, tranquil and unambitious, would not have laboured under that unremitting fever which disturbs the rest of mankind, and leaves not to its own subjects a moment in which they can be sure of enjoying repose. During the course of the revolution, except on the score of military exploits, France may arrogate to itself any thing rather than glory.

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ART. XIII. *Histoire Naturelle et Mythologique, &c. i. e.* The Natural and Mythological History of the Ibis, by JULIUS CÆSAR SAVIGNY, Member of the Egyptian Institute. Embellished with six Plates, engraved by *Bouquet*, and designed by H. J. *Redouté* and *Barraband*. 8vo. pp. 238. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Conchy. Price 9s.

WE have frequently adverted to the obscurity in which the ancient nomenclature of plants and animals is now unavoidably involved; and we opened the present treatise with no very sanguine hopes of arriving at satisfactory conclusions. In the first part of his inquiry, however, M. SAVIGNY appears to have established the identity of both the white and the black ibis, on grounds that cannot easily be disputed. Having noted the principal circumstances on this subject that are mentioned by Herodotus and Pausanias, he shortly reviews the various and jarring opinions of modern naturalists and travellers; and he assigns to Bruce, the celebrated explorer of Abyssinia, the merit of having ascertained the true white ibis, to which, in accordance with M. *Cuvier*, he applies the designation *Numenius Ibis*. On comparing it with that which is described by Herodotus, he finds the coincidence sufficiently exact: but he shews, by arguments drawn from its external and internal organization, that it is not a devourer of serpents.

‘At last,’ says he, ‘I arrive at positive proofs; for, on opening the gizzard, in order to examine the contents of its inner membrane, I found it wholly filled with univalve and river shells, mostly of the genus *cyclotoma*, and of a species which is common in the canals and flooded fields. The shells were sometimes less than an inch in diameter; and yet, when the *mollusca* had not been digested, they were nearly entire. I presume that the bird always swallows them thus, and that its bill is not strong enough to break them, but that the muscle of the ventricle is more than sufficient for the purpose. I have even learned from observation, that, of birds which frequent the shores of rivers, those species that have a strong and very muscular ventricle, although furnished with a bill capable of killing reptiles or other large animals, prefer shells to every other nourishment. I find an example of this in the crane; and I can attest the fact that,



in the same places, and at the same period, the strong gizzard of this bird was always full of shells; while the almost membranous stomach of the heron and of the black stork contained only fish.'

In regard to the black species of ibis, the author proves it to be the *Tantalus falcinellus* of Linné, consequently not peculiar to Egypt, and certainly not addicted to the eating of serpents. The agreement of the antient descriptions, and of the contents of embalmed packages, with living specimens, appears to us to be sufficiently conclusive; though the pitched battles with winged serpents should be treated as a fable. M. SAVIGNY justly remarks that the present inhabitants of Egypt are total strangers to the supposed propensity of the ibis to feed on snakes; and that they affirm that they never saw either species make use of any other food than fish, worms, shells, and sometimes a little grain. The circumstance of shreds of serpents being sometimes found in mummies, along with relics of the ibis, may be owing to accident, or to several serpents having been reckoned among the sacred animals, and consequently their remains having been preserved, but can never prove that they constituted the food of the bird which they accompany.

As the ensuing particulars are mostly the result of the author's personal observation, we gladly communicate them to our readers:

'About the end of the month of Fructidor, of the year 8, as I descended the Nile on my way to Rosetta, I saw white ibides for the first time: but I could not then follow them, nor procure them for attentive examination till three months afterward, during my stay in the environs of Damietta and Menzalé. At that time, many black ibides were still visible: but the white had already begun to become rare; and I could not find them in any considerable number, except in the vicinity of Kafr-Abou-Said, on the left bank of the Nile, at three thousand metres from that river, and at twenty thousand from Damietta, in the line of the extensive flooded grounds which stretch even to the lake Burlos, and which form in winter some natural meadows in which the Arabs tend their flocks. There these birds were caught with difficulty; for it was impossible to reach them without first chasing them across deep marshes, or along slimy plains still liquid and impassable.

'Some Arabs, however, were busied in the pursuit of them. These very men, who hold all carnivorous animals, without distinction, in abhorrence, do not reckon the ibis impure; and they prize its flesh as much as that of any other bird. Though they shoot few of them, they take a great many of both kinds in nets; and, during autumn, they expose them without their heads, in great numbers, in the market-places of Lower Egypt, and especially in that of Damietta. I have frequently had the black ibis brought to me alive, but the white only once. These birds, which were apparently fatigued,

figured, appeared to me dispirited, and little disposed to take any food. They continued in a standing posture, with their body nearly horizontal, the neck bent, and the head inclined, but sometimes turned to the right, or to the left, and sometimes thrust forward or drawn backward, after having struck the ground with the point of their bill. Sometimes they stood on one foot. They were not very shy; yet they opened their bill, as if in self-defence, if I put my finger near it:—but, as I have already mentioned, this bill, particularly that of the black ibis, is by much too weak for pinching.

The white ibis is observed both solitary and in small flocks of eight or ten: but the black, which is more abundant, also moves in more considerable bodies, usually consisting of from thirty to forty individuals. Both are distinguished by a powerful and elevated flight; and their pectoral muscles are, in course, very thick. Like all those of the same genus, they fly with their neck and legs extended horizontally. At intervals, the whole group utter a hollow and very grating cry, which is louder among the white than among the black. When they alight on newly uncovered land, they may be seen, for successive hours, on the same spot, incessantly occupied in searching the mud with their bills, and, for the most part, ranged close to one another. They never leap, but run quickly, like our curlews, always moving step by step.

The ibides are now reckoned among those birds which do not breed in Egypt. If we may credit the inhabitants, the arrival of the white species coincides with the first rise of the Nile; their numbers seem to increase with the waters of the river, and to diminish with them; and all disappear, when the inundation has ceased. Hence, we may fix their migration about the beginning of Messidor, which nearly corresponds to the time assigned by Bruce\* for their arrival in Ethiopia. It should seem that they remain in Egypt, at least in the Delta, about seven months; since some stragglers were still perceived at Kafr-Abou-Said, on the 24th of Nivôse, (14th January). The black ibis probably remains the same length of time, but it arrives and returns later.

We may presume that these birds first resort to the lower parts of the country, which are the soonest flooded, and that they find their first subsistence in the interior of the Delta: but, as the water acquires depth and expansion by the daily progress of the inundation, they are obliged to retrograde to the higher grounds, when they approach the Nile, and haunt the rice fields, or lucerne adjoining to villages, or the banks of canals, or the small mounds which inclose most of the cultivated spots. When the waters, having attained their highest elevation, begin gradually to subside and retire, the ibis follows their course, and also retires from them slowly. This is the favourable season for catching these birds, and that which the fowlers prefer for spreading their snares, until the species really abandons Egypt; for the individuals disappear in quick succession, ex-

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\* The 24th of June. *Travels to the Sources of the Nile*, vol. v. p. 202.

cept a few which return to the heart of the Delta ; whence, however, they depart, when the waters begin to be heated or corrupted by blending with those of the lakes.'

In his second section, M. SAVIGNY enters somewhat diffusely into the mythological history of the ibis ; urging with much plausibility that the Cerastes, which, from the inspection of antient monuments, appears to have been coupled with the sacred bird of Egypt, may have had its two horn-like processes, in the language of eastern metaphor, easily converted into wings. The striking contrasts of this reptile with the ibis might also give rise to the popular belief of decided and mutual antipathies, which might be easily exaggerated into acts of open and extensive hostility. The ibis is innocent, and the cerastes is noxious ; the former frequents the fruitful shores of rivers, or flooded and cultivated plains, while the latter delights in the parched and desert regions of the earth. 'The one is a type of confidence and welfare, the other of distress and urgent necessities ; the ibis seems to promise, the cerastes to refuse every thing ; the one is as much caressed as the other is dreaded ; both, no doubt, were regarded as powerful beings ; both were honoured and associated in emblematical representations ; and both still present a lively image of the confines of Egypt, where death presses so closely on life, and boundless plenty is the forerunner of absolute famine.'

If we advance a step farther, and connect the appearance of the ibis with the periodical overflowing of the Nile, and its grateful blessings, the revival of flowers, a freshened atmosphere, and renovated existence,—while, on the contrary, we associate the arrival of the cerastes with the season of malignant heat, and with those blasting winds which shrivel and deform the gay face of nature,—we may still more aptly interpret the language of Egyptian fable. We cannot, however, without greatly exceeding our present limits, follow the author in his extended and learned illustrations of these ideas ; deduced from the allegories of the antient Egyptians, the reputed aversion of the ibis from the scorpion, its supposed attachment to Egypt, its relations with Isis, Osiris, and Horus, and its consecration to the Moon and to Mercury : but we may, perhaps, safely add that this conjectural part of the publication, thought abundantly ingenious, is the least important ; and that the merits of M. SAVIGNY's labours chiefly consist in having particularized the two species of birds to which the term ibis is applied, and in having at the same time convinced his readers that their power of destroying poisonous reptiles is an idle tale.

The plates, which are executed with singular neatness, exhibit striking delineations of the white ibis; of its head and feet, both in the natural and embalmed state; of the black species; of hieroglyphics connected with the mythological history of these birds; of their symbolical appearance; and of the form of their mummies.—Passages, to which the author refers in the writings of the antients, and others, are given at length, at the end of each section: but the Greek authors are quoted only in a Latin version.

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ART. XIV. *Recherches sur la Force de l'Armée Française, &c. i. f.*  
 Inquiries concerning the Strength of the French Armies, and the Principles on which it ought to be determined in different Circumstances; together with a List of the Secretaries of State or Ministers of War from Henry IV. to 1805. 8vo. pp. 216.  
 Paris. 1806. Imported by De Boffe. Price 8s.

**D**URING the reigns of Henry IV. and Louis XIII. France having no garrison towns except Metz, and no standing armies being maintained by any of the powers of Europe, the peace establishment was on a very small scale. We learn from *Sully's* memoirs that, when the brave Henry determined to make war on the Duke of *Savoy*, he had in readiness not more than 6 or 7000 infantry, 1500 horse, and six pieces of cannon. From 1600 to 1609 he had not more than 7000 men on foot. For the war relative to the succession of *Cleves*, for which he was preparing when he was assassinated, he had ordered an army to be raised which was rather short of 50,000 men.

It is observed by this writer that, in a reign of thirty three years, Louis XIII. was engaged in eleven wars, of which six were intestine, and that he only enjoyed eleven years of peace. In time of war, this monarch had above 100,000 men in the field. Though the army was no more than doubled, the expences were quadruple their amount in the preceding reign; so great had been the depreciation of money during that period.

At the peace of the Pyrenees, Louis XIV. retained 125,000 men; and the peace establishment which succeeded the treaty of *Aix la Chapelle* was 6000 more. In the war which was terminated by the treaty of *Ryswick*, France had an army of nearly 400,000 men; and the peace establishment which followed did not exceed 140,000. After the peace of *Utrecht*, the exhausted state of Europe enabled the Duke of *Orleans* to reduce the army to 132,000 men. In the successful war of 1733, the French force was little more than 200,000, the finest army which France ever had on foot, according to this writer. In the war of 1756, Louis XV. had nearly 300,000

men in arms; and at the peace of 1762 he retained nearly 160,000. In 1780, the army consisted of upwards of 163,000 men. At the beginning of 1792, the nominal force did not amount to 140,000, while the disposable did not exceed 83,000.

In 1792, above 120,000 Austrians, Prussians, Hessians, or emigrants, assembled in the Brisgau, the electorate of Trèves, the Duchy of Luxembourg, and the Low Countries, and menaced the French frontier from Henningen to Dunkirk; which was defended by 40,000 men dispersed through the four camps between Landau and Potentruï: by 17,000 encamped at Fontoi between Longwi and Thionville; by 18,000 men encamped near Sedan, whose commander General *La Fayette* had just fled, leaving his army completely deranged; and by 18,000 more in the several camps of Maubeuge, Pont-sur-Sambre, and Maulde;—in all about 93,000 men, and all agitated by the events of the times, enervated by four years of licentiousness, destitute of almost every means of carrying on war, commanded by new officers, and by generals without reputation, who were the objects of universal distrust. Dispersed along the Rhine, the Moselle, the Meuse, and behind the strong places in the north, they were remote from those points of attack at which their presence was indispensable. A reciprocal want of confidence prevailed between the commanders and the soldiers; officers, privates, and even whole regiments deserted their natal soil, and joined the standards of the enemy; and at this period, also, the Swiss troops were dismissed from the service of France.

Such was the state of things when the Duke of Brunswick published his famous proclamations of the 25th and 27th of July, the threats and offensive style of which had the effect of uniting all parties against the invaders. The royalists, not less than the revolutionists, indignant at this arrogance which was sanctioned by no success, began to fear if not a partition at least a dismemberment of France; and thus all parties, however opposite in other respects, were agreed on the necessity of opposing the Germans with their utmost energy, should they invade the French territory. This was the weak state of defence in which France was found, when the great powers of the continent threatened her on all the points of her frontier; this was the origin of that inauspicious struggle, which has ended so fatally for Europe; and such was the feeble commencement of that military force, which has since become so colossal. The turn which affairs took is here ascribed to the ability, judgment, and zeal of General *Servan*, minister of war: but, if his merits were as signal as they are represented, the

the efficient causes still appear to us to have been, the enthusiasm of liberty which had possessed the multitude, and the just calculations of the sober part of the nation, which united all hearts and hands in resisting foreign subjugation. The folly and the temerity, which characterized the outset of the first coalition, have, unfortunately for the peace of the world, too much infected all their future councils and subsequent measures.

In the story of *Pache* here related, a most hideous revolutionary character is delineated; and the accounts given of him by *Dumourier* and *Madame Roland* are confirmed.

At the period when the convention first assembled, the French frontier was either assailed or threatened by hostile armies to the amount of 300,000; which were opposed by numbers somewhat superior, but consisting, for the most part, of raw troops and inexperienced officers.

In a report made to the Convention in 1795, in the names of the military committee and that of public safety, *Dubois de Crancé* stated that, in the preceding campaign, France had under arms nearly 1,100,000 men; and we find it here added that, in the short space of a few months, the war of *La Vendée* swallowed up 46,000. In 1796, the French armies were somewhat short of 500,000, and they continued on much the same footing during the ensuing year.—In May 1798, *Bona-parte* set out for Malta and Egypt, with 32,375 men, the flower of all the armies,

On the breaking out of the second revolutionary war, the French troops were in a very reduced state; the public enthusiasm had disappeared, and it was necessary to have recourse to compulsion in order to recruit them. In August 1798, it was decreed by the two legislative bodies that, while the country was in danger, every Frenchman was a soldier; and that an indefinite number, from the age of twenty to that of twenty-five, in the way of military conscription, should join the armies, if the number of volunteers proved insufficient. Persons married, or widowers having children, were excepted. The conscripts were divided into five classes, each embracing those of each year. This measure was proposed by General *Jourdan*; and it has since been made a permanent law of the state. In 1799, when *Bernadotte* became minister of war, the armed force of France did not amount to 300,000 men, including 60,000 employed in the interior, and the Egyptian army; the disposable force being only about 200,000.

In August 1799, the two councils passed a law which fixed the number of land forces at 566,420 men; of which 483,000 men were; to be infantry, and 76,000 to be cavalry. The army of Egypt was not to be included in this number.—In

1800, France had in active service 414,732 men; and in 1805, she had on foot 414,125. With 500,000 troops, the author says, France can with ease make head against Europe.

This volume, on account of its dates and facts, has considerable value.

ART. XV. *Histoire de France, &c. i. e.* The History of France, from the Time of the Gauls to the End of the Monarchy. By M. ANQUETIL, of the National Institute, Member of the Legion of Honour, Author of the Spirit of the League, of the Summary of Universal History, and other Works. 9 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1805. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l. 2s.

A GENERAL history of France, from the pen of a Frenchman, at this time, may occasion surprize: but it will subside on a perusal of these passages, which we extract from the preface to the present publication:

‘ His Majesty the Emperor, then Consul, did me the honor four years ago to invite me to Malmaison; where, discoursing with me on the historians of France, after having taken a slight view of them, he told me that it was desirable that some one should compile a history, unincumbered with those details and accessory matters which render that of France so voluminous, and which should only comprize those facts that strictly appertain to the nation. This wish struck a ray of light into my mind; dwelling on which, it occurred to me that if we had a complete but succinct history, regularly arranged according to dates, and which would present simply a series of facts, sufficiently extensive to give a just idea of events, but not sufficiently voluminous to terrify and discourage the reader, young men would then cheerfully enter on it, and inform themselves; while the old would find it amusing to call to mind what they had read before;—two advantages which would induce persons to become better acquainted with the history of their country.’

In this undertaking, then, the present author engaged, and he fairly states the plan which he followed in executing it:

‘ I adopted for my guides our four general historians *Duplex, Meray, Daniel, and Vély*. My recollection told me that nothing, which is of any interest in the history of France, had been omitted by these writers; at least, if one had overlooked it, that the others had supplied the deficiency; that they had well weighed the authorities from which they had drawn their information; and therefore that a reference to them would be the same as the citation of a proof.

‘ On each subject I examined my four guides, and I made his recital the basis of mine who appeared best to have treated the matter; and if I observed any deficiency in it, I supplied it from the other three. When they disagreed, I had recourse to original writers; and when I have not been able to satisfy myself, I have left the question

question in a state of uncertainty. When any thing is affirmed, the reader may rely on its correctness, and the authorities will be found quoted in the one of the four writers whose name will be inserted in the margin, and of whose right of preference on that subject, in my judgment, this circumstance is to be considered as evidence.'

M. ANQUETIL tells us that he has also consulted contemporaneous authors, such as *Froissart*, *Dubellay*, *Comines*, *Montluc*, and others; and he assures us that he has perused every work on the history of France that has ever come within his reach. During the whole course of his life, to his eighty-third year, he says, they have formed his relaxation from other pursuits; so that the reading, which before constituted his amusement, became highly useful to him in the present undertaking.—In the chronology, he has followed the *Art de vérifier les dates*.

'This,' says the venerable writer, 'is my final adieu to the public; the fruit of a long life passed almost entirely far from great cities, in the midst of country people, teaching them, counselling them, and watching over their manners. This pleasing employment, joined to the charms of literature, has caused the passing day to shine on me with a serenity which even revolutionary horrors have been able but slightly to affect.'

The work, we are told, is actually concluded: but the volumes before us only bring the history down to the close of the reign of Henry IV.—The competence of M. ANQUETIL, for the province in which he has been engaged, is well known to the readers of his former publications: which display judgment, and are distinguished by neat arrangement and simplicity of style. It cannot be denied, however, that he is occasionally incorrect. *Hénault's* book is admirable in this line, but can only benefit those who are already conversant with the subject, whereas the present complement has all the qualities of an introduction; and the diligent student, who will carefully digest these volumes, will afterward peruse the admirable abridgment of the learned President with as much pleasure as profit.

ART. XVI. *Philosophie Chimique, &c. i. e.* Chemical Philosophy; or fundamental Truths in modern Chemistry, designed as Elements for the Study of that Science. By A. F. FOURCROY, Counsellor of State, Member of the National Institute, one of the Commanders of the Legion of Honor, and Professor of Chemistry. 3d Edit. 8vo. pp. 380. Paris. 1806. London, De Boffe. Price 7s. sewed.

WITH M. FOURCROY'S *Philosophy of Chemistry*, our scientific readers are well acquainted, and we have now to announce to them a new and enlarged edition of it. The author has



has prefixed an introduction of considerable length, containing a sketch of the principles of chemistry, with the view of rendering the work more perfectly intelligible to those who had not before attended to the subject. This introduction is divided into eight sections, under the following titles; the definition of chemistry, the examination of the means of pursuing chemistry, the chemical nature of bodies, the attraction of aggregation, the attraction of composition, chemical operations, the classification of natural bodies, and the chemical phenomena of nature, and their classification.—Chemistry is defined to be ‘a physical or natural science, the object of which is to determine, by observation and experiment, the intimate and reciprocal action of natural bodies on each other, and what are the results of this action.’ Like most other definitions of chemistry that we have seen, this appears to us to be incomplete; it must indeed be admitted to include every mode of chemical action, but it does not exclude those sciences which, though nearly allied to chemistry, are yet essentially different from it, such as electricity and magnetism.—The author then proceeds to explain the meaning which we attach to the word *element*, and to the terms *decomposition* and *analysis*; the difference between the affinity of aggregation and that of composition is also pointed out, and we have some observations on the laws of chemical affinity. He divides all bodies which are the subjects of chemical investigation into the following classes; simple or undecomposed bodies, binary bodies formed by combustion, salifiable bases, saline substances, metallic substances, mineral or fossil compounds, vegetable compounds, and animal compounds. The introduction concludes with some remarks on each of these classes.

In the body of the volume, we have nearly the same arrangement as in the former edition: but, in consequence of the discoveries that have been made since its publication, most of the sections have received some addition. Several alterations have taken place among the acids: the honigstic acid, a substance procured by *Klaproth* from a peculiar kind of bitumen, is inserted as a distinct acid; the sacclactic is described under the title of mucous acid; while the lactic and some others are omitted, as being merely modifications of the acetic. In the next section, on the salifiable bases, we find barytes and strontian classed among the alkalis; and with that inattention to the claims of the British chemists which is too frequently observed in the writings of M. FOURCROY, the discovery of this latter substance is ascribed solely to *Klaproth*.

The catalogue of vegetable substances is both extended and altered; in the former edition, it amounted to 16, but in the present

present 20 are enumerated. The section on animal bodies is also enlarged, in conformity with recent discoveries in this department of chemistry: but it appears that the author has not paid a due attention to Mr. Hatchett's valuable experiments; and he still continues to regard gelatine as the basis of the membranous parts.—On the whole, we do not hesitate to assert that this work, which was before very valuable, is much improved by the additions that are now made to it.

**ART. XVII.** *Lettres de Mademoiselle De Launai, &c. i. e.* Letters of Mademoiselle DE LAUNAI (Madame DE STAAL) to the Chevalier *De Menil*, to the Marquis *De Silly*, and to *A. M. D'Herbécourt*; to which are added those of *M. De Chauvieu* to Mademoiselle *De Launai*, and a Portraiture of the Dutchess *Du Maine*: 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1806. Imported by De Conchy, London.

**I**N order to obtain some information respecting the author of these letters, the reader is referred to the Memoirs of Madame DE STAAL, as published in 2 vols. in 1783.—We there learn that *Mademoiselle DE LAUNAI*, by one of the many whimsical incidents which constituted her motley destiny, found herself at an early period a prisoner in the Bastile; to which very interesting confinement (as it ultimately proved) she was introduced by her patroness the Duchess *Du Maine*: who, having quarrelled with the French Court, applied for redress to the Spanish Government; a measure which so irritated the Regent of France, *M. D'Orleans*, that he ordered her dispatches to be seized, and the Duchess to be sent to the Citadel of Dijon; while Mademoiselle DE LAUNAI, her protégée, for having assisted in destroying some tell-tale manuscripts, was conveyed to the Bastile. To this event, however unpromising in speculation, Mlle. DE LAUNAI appears to have owed the most endearing pleasures of her life. Love, who seems never to have lost sight of her for a moment, provided a resource against that ennui which is so notoriously irksome to the captive, that we are not without examples of the most ingenious devices employed by the solitary inmates of a prison to “whip the lagging moments into speed.” We have heard of a man cultivated an acquaintance with a spider, and extracted a kind of pleasure even from his society. How fortunate, then, may we pronounce Mademoiselle DE LAUNAI, who found something so much better than even Arachne herself, in the form of a handsome knight, the Chevalier *De Menil*, who had been sent to the same prison for his devotion to the Duke *Du Maine*. To this intercourse, for they had never previously said a word to each

each other, we are indebted for the greatest part of the letters contained in the two volumes before us.

Correspondence between lovers immured in a prison we must admit to be invaluable to the Pyramus and Thisbe themselves: they could, no doubt, repeat the same tale, decorate with the same glowing language the same sentiments, and never tire each other: but the reader, if not in love, sickens at the platitudes of the *cooling pens* of poor captives, the locality of whose situation necessarily precluded all communication with the world at large. Hence, the scanty occurrences of the Bastille furnished Mademoiselle DE LAUNAI with no subjects of intelligence but such as love supplied. We have a sanction for our remarks in the description of these letters given in an extract from Madame DE STAAL's memoirs, affixed to this publication, where she thus speaks of them herself:

‘ The little incidents which they contain form the substance of this adventure; they are the actual events which attest their truth, and the sources in which I have recovered some circumstances that had escaped me. They will supply the place of our conversations, always disturbed by fear, abridged by prudence, more short and less continued than our epistolary correspondence, and almost entirely effaced from my memory.

‘ Our confinement, in a place in which we had no employment, occasioned the production of a countless multitude of letters. That passion, which I believed myself capable of cherishing without offering any outrage to reason or virtue, I expressed without any reserve. I spoke to a person to whom I considered myself as already united by the most sacred ties, waiting only for the termination of our captivity in order to render our enjoyment legal and indissoluble.’

Notwithstanding this want of general interest, and of novelty, the letters possess much merit. The language is correct and elegant; the sentiments are dignified and moral; and though occasionally impassioned, they are always delicately chaste, and apparently dictated by good sense and amiable dispositions.

The correspondence of Mademoiselle DE LAUNAI with the Marquis *De Sully*, and with Monsieur *D'Héricourt* when she had become Madame DE STAAL, equally deserves our approbation on the same ground of merit; and we are indebted to the editor who obliges us with these posthumous credentials of the genius which we formerly admired.

In a note, we meet with a sort of biographical table, which may be considered as an useful memorandum, and we shall therefore copy it:

‘ *Mesdames*

<i>Mesdames La Sune</i>	born	1618	died	1673
<i>Villedieu</i>	—	1640	—	1683
<i>De Motteville</i>	—	1615	—	1689
<i>De Montpensier</i>	—	1627	—	1693
<i>La Fayette</i>	—	1634	—	1693
<i>Desboulieeres</i>	—	1638	—	1694
<i>Séviigné</i>	—	1626	—	1696
<i>Scudery</i>	—	1607	—	1701
<i>Ninon</i>	—	1618	—	1705
<i>Maintenon</i>	—	1635	—	1719
<i>Dacier</i>	—	1651	—	1720
<i>De Lambert</i>	—	1647	—	1733
<i>Duchâtelet</i>	—	1706	—	1749
<i>De Launai</i>	(about)	1693	( <i>de Staal</i> )	1750
<i>Dumaine</i>	—	1676	—	1753
<i>De Graffigny</i>	—	1694	—	1758
<i>Riccoboni</i>	—	1734	—	1792

These volumes form part of a series of epistolary works now publishing in France, consisting of letters from celebrated French ladies in the last two centuries.

ART. XVIII. *Science de l'Histoire, &c. i. e.* The Science of History, containing a general System of the Knowledge necessary to be acquired previously to the Study of it, and the Method to be adopted in pursuing it, exhibited in Synoptic Tables. Vol. I. Treating of Chronology, and Vol. II. of the Geography of Europe. By P. N. CHANTREAU, Professor of History in the Military School of Fontainebleau. 4to. Paris. Imported by De Boffe. Price 11. 16s.

THIS work appears to have been executed with considerable attention: but, as the whole value of such a production arises from the accuracy of the dates and facts, we could have wished that they had been derived from sources less liable to suspicion, than many of those are on which M. CHANTREAU has relied.

The Professor's method, particularly as it respects the chronological part, is preferable to any that has been hitherto adopted; and we do not hesitate to recommend the publication on this ground to students and persons of a liberal education. Whether it will be productive of all those advantages to the learner which are anticipated by the author, we feel very much inclined to doubt: but it will materially assist and abbreviate the labours of the instructor, while it will prove to be most interesting and profitable to him who has carefully surveyed all the parts of the vast field of history. In the hands of such persons, it may be rendered serviceable in various ways. They may here learn in what parts they are most deficient; they will be enabled better to connect together the transactions of different

different states; and they will discern most clearly the relations which they mutually bear to each other.—The view here given of treaties of peace, and of the principal articles contained in them, will be found very gratifying and convenient by such as are already adepts in history.

ART. XIX. *Table Chronologique, &c. i. e.* A Chronological Table of Universal History, from the Commencement of the Year 1700 to the general peace in 1802. By the Abbé MANN. 4to. Paris, 1804. Imported by De Boffe.

WE learn from the author, that this table has been formed from materials which he had collected with the view of giving a more full account of the period which it embraces, and which he is not able to pursue, owing to causes connected with the French revolution.—This volume is not superseded by the work of M. *Chantreau*, because it is much more full for the space of time which it includes. It will prove an useful addition to an historical and chronological library.

ART. XX. *Galerie Historique, &c. i. e.* The Historical Gallery of the most celebrated men of all ages and nations. Containing their portraits, sketched after the best originals, with an abridgment of their lives, and some observations on their characters and works; by a society of literary men. Published by C. P. LANDON, painter. Vol. I. 12mo. Paris, 1805. London, De Boffe. Price 12s.

THE title of this undertaking clearly announces its object. Each portrait is very neatly etched; and we are informed that the authors of the biographical notices, subjoined to each plate, have been as attentive to truth in the exhibition of character as the artists were in giving the outline of the countenance. A boast is made of their having combated the passion and prejudices of contemporary historians: but the compilers of abridgments must take facts as they are recorded; and in a work of this kind, in which the lives of princes, statesmen, warriors, poets, &c. are compressed within three or four pages for each, critical discussion is impossible.

Parts I. and II. of this volume contain each 36 portraits, and the accompanying memoirs include brief notices, in a type which is too small for old eyes. To those by whom this objection is not felt, the publication will be acceptable; as forming a convenient abridgment of biographical particulars relative to eminent persons, and furnishing very clear and satisfactory delineations of them (in outline), from the paintings of celebrated artists.

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